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Secondary school leadership and management in Botswana : exploring policy, practice and the implications for effective training

SECONDARY SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN BOTSWANA: EXPLORING POLICY, PRACTICE AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR EFFECTIVE TRAINING

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the nature and form of leadership and management training provided for secondary school headteachers in Botswana because since the implementation of the Revised National Policy on Education (1994) in 1996 significant educational changes have taken place in Botswana. These included 100% progression rate from primary to junior secondary education by 2000 (NDP 9, 2003:272), increase of both teachers' and students' needs and more school building projects. All these changes were managed by headteachers even though their initial training was subject specific and not related to school leadership and management. Drawing on a range of leadership and organisational theories that emphasise that formal leadership training is important if heads are to perform their roles effectively and provide quality education this thesis explores the criteria used for appointing heads and their training on school leadership and management in Botswana. By this process I intend to reveal that the lack of relationship between the criteria for appointment and school leadership and management tasks as well as unsystematic induction do not prepare heads for leadership and management tasks dictated by the changing school contexts and demands.

Using an interpretive methodology I interviewed eight headteachers from eight districts and two officials from the Ministry of Education in Botswana. Fifty teachers from the same eight schools took part in completing semi-open-ended questionnaires. This methodology enabled me to use descriptions from participants and drawing further on published literature on the following; leadership, management and training of heads within the framework of an established national training policy to show that leadership and management skills can be acquired through training. In this analysis I highlight that there is a relationship between training, a headteacher' skills and the job.

The findings of this study indicate that the implementation of the current education policy has resulted in changes that have increased the headteachers' tasks and have exposed weakness in their preparation for school leadership. Finally, the outcome of this study show that lack of formal leadership and management training is due to non-existence of a national training policy and therefore its absence leaves acquisition of leadership and management skills to chance. In conclusion I argue that there is need to establish a training policy for effective training programme for secondary school heads in Botswana in order to provide quality education.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband Thari and our two daughters, Lame and Lesego who have made sacrifices in agreeing that our family be separated in order for me to embark on this study. I am grateful for their total support through this difficult period. I also dedicated it to both my families of Boitshepo and Pheko.

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I am also thankful to the University of Botswana as my sponsor and the Training Office for their support during this study. Finally, I thank God the Almighty for helping me to survive physically and to grow both mentally and spiritually during this process.

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this dissertation was carried out in accordance with the Regulations of the University of Bristol. The work is original, except where indicated by special reference in the text, and no part of the dissertation has been submitted for any other academic award. Any views expressed in the dissertation are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University of Bristol.

The dissertation has not been presented to any other University for examination in the United Kingdom or overseas.

SIGNED..... DATE.....07-04-2006.....

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND TRANSLATION

Abbreviations

RNPE	Revised National Policy on Education
RNCE	Report of the National Commission on Education
BEAMS	Botswana Educational Action Management in Schools
PTA	Parents and Teachers Association
NDP	National Development Plan
TSM	Teaching Service Management
MoET 1	Ministry of Education Training Officer 1
MoET 2	Ministry of Education Training Officer 2
SSHT	Secondary School Headteacher 1-8
SST	Secondary School Teacher 1-50
DES	Department of Education and Science
TTA	Teacher Training Agency
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
LEA	Local Education Authority
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
UPE	Universal Primary Education
ODA	Overseas Development Agency
MoE	Ministry of Education
EENW	Excellence in Education for the New Millenium

Translations

Botswana	The country populated by Batswana
Batswana	Citizens of Botswana (plural)
Motswana	A citizen of Botswana
Setswana	The language spoken by majority and the national language
Kgosi	King
Mophato	Regiment
Masoko	Teachers and advisors for Bogwera
Makgajane	Teachers and Advisors for Bojale
Bojale	School for female students
Bogwera	School for male students
Kgotla	A public court used for both public meetings and local court proceedings

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CHAPTER 1

EDUCATIONAL POLICY CHANGE AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

1.0 Introduction

The thesis examines the leadership and management practices in a selected number of secondary schools in Botswana and the experiences of and implications for training against the background of the current *Revised National Policy on Education* (RNPE, 1994) implemented in 1996. A key recommendation of this policy was that "the duration of junior secondary education should be extended from two to three years" (Botswana Government, 1994:20). The study explores the impact of this change on the work of headteachers. It focuses particularly on whether headteachers have the necessary leadership and management skills to implement these changes and explores the kind of training heads may have been able to access to help to undertake these task.

The idea of training for school heads, of course, raises the question of whether it is possible to learn to become leaders and managers of complex organisations, such as secondary schools. I hope to highlight that though the nature of leadership and management knowledge and skills is complex, for most individuals, training is a vehicle through which this knowledge and skills can be learned. I will be suggesting then, that contrary to a prevalent view that leaders are born, this dissertation takes the view that for most individuals "leaders are born to be made" (MacBeath, 1998:14).

1.1 The Beginning

My interest in the possibilities of leadership and management training as vehicles for producing more skilled, and therefore arguably more effective, school heads comes from two experiences. The initial experience is based on my work as a lecturer at the University of Botswana where I taught undergraduate courses on the school as an organisation, and school management. My readings and discussions with students enrolled in these two courses often revealed the gap between the theories that I referred to in my teaching and the every day issues and challenges they face in secondary schools in Botswana. I also observed that not all prospective heads registered for these courses, yet appointment to headship is open to all teachers. I began to wonder how and where school heads learn the knowledge and skills associated with being a school head, particularly too as the policy changes throughout the 1990's placed a greater burden on school heads. I also wondered whether this knowledge was best learnt 'on the job' or whether school heads developed their understandings and practices through access to training. A further question I had was whether secondary school heads felt equipped to provide the kind of leadership and management that the policies both urged and argued were required for developing an 'effective' school - a term that I will come back to and clarify later in this chapter.

The second factor that stirred my interest in this topic came from my experience as a member of the Board of Governors in Moeding College, one of the 231 secondary schools in Botswana. At some meetings of the Board, the head was asked to provide responses to a range of problems; for example,

updates on progress made on building projects and if these were in line with the approved architectural plans or financial allocations and disbursement of funds and to account for discrepancies. In this case I observed the difficulty the head had in trying to explain these issues to other members of the Board, some of whom understood these aspects considerably better because of their own professional locations and experience. I became increasingly curious to find out whether this was a personal problem of the head, or whether other heads had similar problems. In addition, I wanted to find out from the heads whether experiences acquired before or on-the-job were sufficient to take on these tasks, or whether some kind of formal training or learning would enable them to perform these tasks better. These became the concerns that shaped the overall problem of this study.

1.2 Background to the Study

For more than three decades, education in Botswana is linked to development (*National Development* 8, 1997). The Botswana Government has carried out two educational Commissions since Independence. The first Commission's terms of reference were to consider ways of improving access to education and how education could contribute to individual personal development. It carried out the review in 1976 and reported in 1977 (Botswana Government, 1977). The Second Commission, whose recommendations provide the context for this study, was carried out in 1993 (*Report of the National Commission on Education,* (Botswana Government, 1993). The Commission brief was to conduct a broad review of the entire education system "with particular emphasis on universal access to basic education and preparation for the world

of work" (Botswana Government, 1993:ii). Two major reasons appear to have influenced the Government to commission this review: first, there was a general feeling that the graduates from the two-year junior secondary education had experienced a weaker education programme and as a result were not able to access either the labour market or be "easily accepted into other training institutions in the country" (Botswana Government, 1993:x).

Second, the Government's decisions to commission this review was influenced by the declaration of the *World Conference on Education for All* (1990) held in Jomtein - Thailand, which advocated that countries must move toward providing basic or primary education to all of their citizens. The Botswana Government was represented at this forum. The Commission recommended the re-introduction of a three-year junior secondary education, which had been abolished following the 1977 Commission report. Their argument was that a three–year junior secondary education, combined with automatic progression from seven years of primary education, would make up ten-years of a free basic education programme. The advantage of this recommendation was that many pupils would have access to education for a longer period and would also acquire a better range of skills. This, in turn, would propel economic and social development in Botswana.

The Government approved the recommendation and implemented it in 1996. This meant that the two years of junior secondary was changed to three years. The major changes in education occurred at secondary level because the primary education still remained at seven years.

A major outcome of implementing the programme of three years of secondary education in 1996 was the automatic progression to junior secondary education of all primary pupils who had completed their seven years of primary education. Indeed, by the year 2000, 100 per cent of the student cohort continued to junior secondary education (Botswana Government, 2003:272). As a result, more subjects were introduced at this level while teachers were expected to teach students of mixed abilities (*Excellence in Education for the New Millennium*, (Ministry of Education, 1999). Due to the overall increase in the student population in secondary schools, there was general lack of adequate teaching facilities, as well as living accommodation for the increased number of teachers in various local communities. In order to reduce the shortage of classrooms and laboratories, additional school buildings and classrooms were constructed. The Government set aside funds for this expansion, as indicated in the 1999/2000 national budget speech, where "nearly one quarter of the budget was allocated to education" (Ministry of Education: 1999:12).

However, the changes outlined above had to be managed by school heads. This raises the important questions of whether: (i) heads felt able to lead and manage these policy changes in their schools; (ii) training was made available to heads; (iii) if training was provided, what kind, finally (iv) did heads, if they accessed training, regard this training as useful?

Raising these questions above about heads and their levels of specific knowledge and skills to lead and manage schools raised important issues

around definitions, such as what is meant by leadership, management and training? There are huge academic and popular literatures on leadership and management, arising largely from different ways of thinking about organisations and how organisations might be both energised to respond to changes taking place. Not surprising then, this mix of *description* (researchers' systematic findings on how to lead and manage organisations) and *prescriptions* (such as how to be the effective leader and manager) offer a confusing canvas of definitions.

Added to this, how these terms are defined and understood in one context, for instance Botswana, may well be different to another context—such as the United States of America or Great Britain. Secondly, we all have our own working definitions or understandings in our minds of what 'leadership' or 'management' mean and entail. These tacit understandings are important for they guide individuals in their practices. While these tacit understandings might correspond to those that are officially produced, they may well differ in important ways. In this study I intend to clarify the terms leadership, management and training, first through reference to the academic and policy literature, focusing in particular on those conceptualisations that seem to have shaped the policy context in Botswana, and second through interviews with secondary school heads and teachers. These top-down and bottom-up approaches will be used to develop a more contextual understanding of leadership and management for secondary heads in Botswana. This approach will, I argue, form the basis for developing a more complex and responsive approach to training.

1.3 Research Problem

Since 1996, the date set for the implementation of the recommendations of the *Revised National Policy on Education* (RNPE, 1994), the Government devolved responsibility for the implementation of these management and educational changes to headteachers of both primary and secondary schools. From the beginning, heads were expected by the Ministry of Education, on the one hand, and teachers on the other, to manage and solve problems associated with the new reforms; problems such as the lack of trained teachers, teaching facilities and lack of accommodation for teachers. The work of the headteacher also went beyond their traditional concerns with teaching and learning to now include a new array of tasks, such as the supervision of newly constructed buildings, the management of funds allocated to them, and providing support for students. Furthermore, teachers depended on heads to support them in new tasks, such as negotiating with the Ministry of Education to improve teachers' terms and conditions of service.

These tasks require a different type of headteacher to that of the past; one who might be described as embracing more of the qualities of a manager rather than a curriculum leader within a formal bureaucracy. Reynolds (1997:23), in reflecting on similar developments in the English context, argues that continuous policy changes and societal demands now require a different type of leadership for schools to that of the past. In comparing the 1980 with the 1990s, Reynolds (op.Cit) notes that:

> ...an effective headteacher of the 1980s got his school moving in the context of the absence of any external pressure for change; the effective headteacher of the 1990s has to somehow broker the external change agenda to his or her staff, a very different and complex task. The 1990s headteacher has to relate to parents, be a public relations person, cope with uncertainty, motivate staff in the absence

> of substantial instrumental rewards, has to be a financial manager and be able to cope with rapid changes. The sorts of headteacher that stands out in the 'old' school effectiveness literature are unlikely to be those that really 'work' in the late 1990s.

Reynolds (1997) emphasises the considerable changes in the role of the head across the world as a result of more than two decades of reform in the public sector generally, and in education specifically. This is also the case for Botswana. However, it is important to note that, although funds were set aside for the implementation of the *Revised National Policy on Education* (RNPE, 1994), in the final White Paper which was the official working document that followed the *Report of the National Commission on Education*, (1993) and the RNPE (1994), there was no mention of training for either management and/or leadership skills for heads to implement these changes. Neither was training and its provision mentioned in the *Excellence in Education for the New Millennium* (1999) that reviewed the implementation progress of the RNPE (1994), nor in the *National Development Plan* 9 (2003) which laid the framework for future developments.

This omission, it seems to me, is significant, for either it can be assumed that heads were viewed as either naturally capable or already skilled to take on these new tasks and motivate those around them. Alternatively, the omission can be regarded as a failure of both vision and provision. The questions raised here for this study are: what were the implications of this omission for school heads' leadership and management practices? for heads view of their own competence? and, did this failure undermine efforts to provide what the policies refer to as 'quality' education? Here I use the term 'quality'

education drawn from the *Report of the National Commission on Education* (Botswana Government, 1993) to refer to a learning and teaching environment, whereby there are adequate teaching facilities, qualified teachers, and skilled school heads to ensure "promotion of the all-round development of the individual student, in order to foster intellectual growth and creativity and enable everyone to reach their full potential" (Botswana Government, 1993:19).

Though 'quality' education is a highly contested and multi-dimensional construct largely as there is disagreement on what elements or characteristics might make up 'quality', there is some agreement in the literature that it refers to continuous improvement in all aspects of education to give students an advantage of present and future life (Hoy and Miskel, 1996,). In academic and policy literatures, quality is often linked to the concept of school effectiveness, referring to the total impact of the school on the progress of individual students (cf. Mortimore, 1991, Coleman, 2003). The underlying assumption in this approach is that schools are more effective possibly through explicitly developing structures and processes for managing, adopting and implementing those innovations that realise school improvement – typically measured through pupil achievement. In this literature, the school head is emphasized as playing a central and critical role (cf. Ball, 1993; Silver, 1994; Stoll and Mortimore, 1995; Reynolds, 1997) in school effectiveness leading to school improvement.

1.4 Rationale

In light of the pressure to provide quality education and the expectation that heads should lead schools effectively in Botswana, this study sets out to investigate whether and how heads are prepared for school leadership and management. The study draws from literature on theories of school leadership and management, as well as training for school leadership and management.

Studies relating to leadership training of secondary school heads, such as Grace (1995), Buckley and Caple (1995), Bush (2003), reveal that there is a link between leadership skills and schools being effective. Buckley and Caple (1995) insist on the importance of leadership training for heads and argue that for many heads they will not have naturally acquired these skills. As I will elaborate in Chapter 3, their argument further emphasises that the success of education, to a large extent, depends on the quality of school leadership that is provided and how school leaders are trained (MacBeath, 1998).

In reflecting on school leadership in 10 African countries, the *Commonwealth Secretariat*, (1992:3) notes that training is not coordinated, and can best be described as "hit and – miss". This view was also endorsed by a report from the *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1996:iii), which noted that due to the lack of formal training on school leadership and management "...experienced and skilled teachers are customarily appointed to run complex schools without adequate preparation and back-up support". This view has considerable resonance in Botswana. While the 1994 Report of the Revised National Policy on Education raised the issue of lack of adequate preparation for heads for school leadership, recommending "a structured national in-service training

programme developed to guide in-service activities, starting from an orientation of a newly appointed teacher at the school level to the training of newly appointed headteachers and education officers" (RNPE, 1994:47), this was excluded from the final document. Yet, as Hilsum and Quist (1997:7) note in their study commissioned by the Department for International Development and the Government of Botswana to assess training needs for primary (though I would argue this applies also to secondary) school headteachers in Botswana, one of the primary needs for heads was that "management training was necessary if heads are to be empowered to do their work successfully".

1.5 Aims

In light of the problems outlined above about leadership and management of schools in Botswana, the main aim of this study is to examine and understand the professional training opportunities of secondary school headteachers in Botswana. This will be undertaken through, on the one hand, an examination of the changing educational policy landscape in Botswana during the implementation of the Revised National Policy on Education (1994), and on the other, the perceptions and perspectives of a selected group of secondary school heads, Department officials and teachers as to whether the school head is adequately prepared for the leadership and management of the school in ways that might contribute to quality education.

1.6 Research Questions

Given my interest and the aims elaborated above, the next issue was to determine the key research questions. The review of the literature on school leadership and management as well as training suggested that a descriptive study was appropriate to investigate whether leadership and management skills could be acquired without formal training and whether it is necessary to establish a leadership training policy in Botswana. I would attempt to understand these through four sources of data. The first is to investigate the extent to which the criteria for appointing heads take into account the heads' tasks and what measures are put in place to assist heads to do their jobs effectively. The second is to ask heads to relate how they experience the challenges of school leadership and management. The third is to ask the Ministry of Education officials to explain how they provide leadership training and its impact on leadership capacity. Finally, teachers are asked to provide some insights into heads' leadership and management skills in their respective schools. Teachers' views are important in this study because of two reasons; first, they "contribute to the running of the school" because they participate in school leadership and management as head of departments and so forth. They could provide another view of how to improve and acquire leadership and management skills (Mortimore, 1995; Bush, 1996). Second, by accepting leadership and management responsibilities teachers are "engaged in collaborative leadership with heads" (Leithwood et al, 2003:190). They hold views on what are 'good' leadership and management skills and whether establishing a leadership training policy is necessary. This study is driven by the following four research questions. These are:

- What are the consequences of the current *Revised National Policy on Education* (1994) in Botswana and its demands for effective leadership, for secondary school headteachers?
- What do headteachers, teachers and the Ministry of Education officials understand to be leadership and what do they consider being necessary skills required for school leadership?
- How does the Ministry of Education provide leadership and management training?
- What are the views of selected heads, teachers and Secondary Department officials in relation to improving leadership and management training of heads and can these be improved and if so how?

The review of the literature on school leadership and training suggested that a descriptive qualitative study was appropriate. I examined the academic and policy literature to develop insights into descriptions and prescriptions of leadership, management and training to enhance organisational effectiveness. This was used to generate a set of interview schedules based on semi-structured interviews and survey questions based on semi–opened-ended questions. The detailed questions asked during the interviews and in the survey appear in the Appendices 1, 2 and 3.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it focuses on an area that has had little research in the context of Botswana. Second, it is also anticipated that a

better understanding of headship tasks, as described by heads and teachers, would highlight the importance of training and provide evidence to policy makers that a national, well coordinated and well-managed, training programmes based on a leadership training policy might ensure the acquisition of leadership and management skills.

1.8 Organisation of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of eight chapters. Chapter 1 sets the stage for this investigation. It also focuses on the aims of the study, its motivation, the research questions and the significance of the study. Chapter 2 presents the literature on the development of education and its leadership in Botswana, from the pre-colonial to the contemporary period, and how the changes in education generate the need for a new kind of skilled secondary school leaders. In Chapter 3, the literature on leadership, management and training is reviewed in order to generate an understanding of these concepts. Chapter 4, introduces the Hermeneutic/interpretive methodological approaches, discusses multi-case study as a research strategy, and research methods chosen for this study, data analysis procedures, triangulation, as well as considering questions of ethics. Chapters 5 and 6 presents and discusses the research findings from the interview with heads and Secondary Department officials, while Chapter 7 presents findings from 8 multi-case study schools where the views of the heads and teachers from the same schools are considered together regarding leadership and management training of heads. In the concluding Chapter 8, I draw the findings together to assess the implications of these for the development of training for heads in Botswana.

1.9 Conclusion

In this chapter I outlined the broad changes in educational policy that have taken place in Botswana and the implications of these changes for the work of heads in secondary schools. In particular I focused on what seemed to me as an observer of this process to be a disjuncture between the increased and more diverse demands on heads and the opportunities for training. This disjuncture motivated me to systematically investigate, on the one hand, the policy context that placed new demands on secondary school heads in Botswana, and on the other, heads and teachers views as to the knowledge and skills heads needed to respond to these demands.

CHAPTER 2

EDUCATION IN BOTSWANA AND SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

2.0 Introduction

The previous chapter gave an overview of the key educational policy changes that were proposed and implemented in Botswana from 1993; these changes provided the context for this study, its aims, rationale and questions. In this chapter, in order to provide a context for understanding school leadership and management, I develop an account of Botswana's pre-colonial education system and its development as a modern educational system. In particular I discuss the process and the implementation of the *Revised National Policy on Education* (1994), and the changing role of the headteacher as a result of the implementation of the 10-years basic education policy (RNPE, 1994).

Arnove (1998:8) argues that "to understand, appreciate and evaluate the real meaning of the education system of a nation, it is important to know something of the history and traditions, social organisation of the political and economic conditions that determines its development". This point is also made by Tikly et al (2005:2), who state that "there is a need to ground theory in the realities of … education system". I agree with both Arnove and Tikly et al. For this reason, I will briefly outline those dimensions that will help us to understand Botswana as a nation and a society.

2.1 Botswana's Location and Brief History

Botswana is landlocked and bordered by South Africa in the south, Namibia on the west, Angola and Zambia on the north and Zimbabwe on the east. The country is 581 730 square kilometres. The population is 1.7 million based on the 2001 Population and Housing census. Botswana has many languages some of which are; Setswana, Sesarwa, Seherero, Sekalaka, Sekgaladi, Setswapong, Sebirwa, Sembukushu and Seyei. Setswana is the common language spoken by the majority of Batswana, and it is also the national language. Botswana had been a British colony for 81 years before she gained her independence from Britain in 1966.

The economy is based on the export of high value diamonds and it is a thriving economy with an annual growth rate of 3 per cent (*National Development Plan* 9, 2003:30). Politically, Botswana can be described as a multi-party democracy, with legislative power vested in the parliament. Ntlo ya Dikgosi (House of Kings) is comprised of traditional leaders from nine districts with four specially elected members. Ntlo ya Dikgosi advises the government on tribal matters (Botswana Government, 2003). The national principles for development are based on the cultural notions of democracy, development, self-reliance and kagisano (unity) (*National Development Plan* 9, 2003). These are further expanded in the documents *Education for Kagisano (*Ministry of Education, 1977: 23) and *Vision 2016* (Botswana Government, 1997: 4) where the 'botho' (the concept of a person who has a well-rounded character, well-mannered, courteous and disciplined) is included. Education at both primary and secondary levels is free.

The education system in Botswana has been developed since the arrival of the missionaries in mid 19th Century. Before the advent of the missionaries Batswana had established a pre-colonial system of education. During this pre–colonial period, tribal schools focused on the development of social consensus and social cohesion. However, with the missionaries arrived, they introduced the modern education system which was later taken over by the Colonial Government (Parson, 1983). The third change was when the Botswana Government took over the education system from the Colonial Government at the time of Independence in September 1966 (Botswana Government, 1977). In this colonial phase, the education system was organised along bureaucratic lines (Parsons, 1983), a pattern that was continued until recent changes in the 1990s which have tended to emphasise more managerial approaches.

2.1.1 The Pre-Colonial Education System in Botswana (then Bechuanaland 1885-1965

The role of education in the pre-colonial period was to "teach skills, oral knowledge and establish moral values" (Bray, 1986:7). In addition education was seen to be the "vehicle for social and economic development" (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1985:3). These were formal schools and were divided according to gender; *Bojale* for girls and *Bogwera* for boys. Bojale's main aim was to impart skills in sewing, carving of mortars, and looking after siblings and members of the family. It also taught girls what was expected of women in matrimonial relationships later in life. Bogwera taught boys how to make shields, to make clothes from the hides of different animals, to carve, hunt, and look after cattle. They were also taught skills to defend their

societies as well as what were deemed to be 'good' attitudes and responsibilities in matrimonial relationships (Parsons, 1983).

Both females and males were also engaged in "vocational education, such as mining, carving and pottery, while smelting and smithing (making of metal utensils and jewellery) were restricted to males" (Parsons, 1983:24). Each graduate belonged to *mophato* "a regiment" and, irrespective of gender, they learnt to memorise and recite poems. Dancing and singing were part of the skills that they acquired (Parsons, 1983:25). Teachers imparted these skills to the students. In every graduating *mophato*, students who demonstrated talent were chosen to be teachers; this ensured the continuity of future teachers.

Leaders were also chosen from each *mophato* on the basis of royalty or the ability of an individual to share her/his ideas of doing things, listening skills and persuading others in decision-making and administering procedures (story told by Tlhobogang, 2002). From Tlhobogang's (2002) view and experience, leadership was understood as both a natural characteristic and an acquired learnt skill, and the selection of leaders was based on candidates' abilities to persuade others in decision-making how to coordinate general activities, to grasp taught skills and display these in different activities. It was generally accepted by both teachers and prospective leaders that a leader should be somebody who strongly believed in consensus (Parson, 1983). This concept is based on the Setswana proverb of "Kgosi ke kgosi ka batho" (Seboni, 1978:206). This literally means that decisions are upheld when the majority of people participate in making them. This is still displayed in Kgotla

consultative meetings and discussions, particularly if a major national policy has to be introduced or changed (see the methods used for information gathering for the *Education for Kagisano and Report of the National Commission on Education,* (Botswana Government, 1977; 1993).

Particular individuals responsible for coordinating the teaching activities and decision-making of these schools could be equated to the roles of teachers and headteachers in contemporary schools (Masoko and Makgajane). Masoko were teachers for bogwera while Makgajane were for bojale; among these, there was no single person responsible for the overall decision-making for these schools.

For this research, and because there is a limited amount of information on pre-colonial schools, I interviewed Tlhobogang; one of the elders and representatives of teachers [referred to as Lesoko]. I invited him to share his [as a result of custom] experience because I wanted to develop some insight, albeit limited, as to how these tribal schools were led and managed. I knew Tlhobogang and that he had been a Lesoko. I then visited Tlhobogang at his house in Moshupa mainly to listen to him telling me the story about the Bogwera and how it was led and managed. The story was based on one question "can you tell me everything you know and still recall about bogwera?" The information from Tlhobogang (2002) who had been one of the Masoko was that a consultative type of Lesoko who was elderly, wise, experienced and respected, was usually consulted on issues that were generally difficult for the teachers. Consulting and requesting advice from an

elder was usually done to establish if there had been a precedent for the issue in question. However, Masoko and Makgajane were different from the current headteachers because they worked as a group, and decisions regarding the school were dependent on the group's consensus and the knowledge acquired through practice and training. At this juncture, the community fully participated in selection of students and their graduation ceremonies.

2.1.2 Could there be a relationship between pre-colonial educational leadership and modern educational leadership?

Tlhobogang's views on pre-colonial forms of educational leadership training is relevant to this study because it indicates that leaders in this kind of tribal setting were regarded as being both born and were made. The implication here is that there could be a continuation of the idea of developing leaders linking practices from pre-colonial schools to current models. The other significant insight is the importance of leadership through consensus; the idea that problems could be solved through joint consideration and effort. These insights will be drawn upon in considering current leadership and management practices, as well as in formulating recommendations.

Unfortunately, the pre-colonial schools gradually disappeared with the advent of the Missionaries in the early 19th century in the then Bechuanaland (Parsons, 1983). This change brought two fundamental shifts; alienation of the community from participating in school activities, and a change in the manner in which the school was being administered. There are two reasons for the community's exclusion. First, using a western definition, the community members were considered to be illiterate. Second, the community

were regarded as unskilled and therefore unable to contribute to school development and its decision-making.

When the missionaries introduced modern western education they also introduced a new way of managing the modern schools (Parsons, 1983:24). The school structure became hierarchical, based on Weber's bureaucratic model (Parsons, 1983). Bureaucracy is a formal structure that is found in many large organisations. For Weber (1947), the core characteristics of bureaucracy are (i) that tasks and responsibilities are standardized; (ii) there is division of labour; (iii) a high level of specialisation, (iv) employment is based on technical qualifications, (v) there is impersonality in decision-making (Bush, 1986; Mullins, 2005). Applied to schools, the bureaucratic model differentiates the headteacher from teachers. The head is placed at the apex of the school structure and has power and authority due her/his position. There is division of labour between all members of the school, and between the school and the central administration. In this model, teachers are experts and there are formal and informal rules that govern pupils and teachers (Hughes, 1985).

In this bureaucratically organised school system, there is a structural relationship between the Ministry of Education at the centre and the school in the local community. The hierarchical relationship is demonstrated by the Ministry of Education's control of curriculum content, their allocation of school funds, the centralisation of secondary school students' admission, and in the allocation of teachers to various schools. This relationship can be

described as a 'top-down approach' (Ryan, 1995). Headteachers control the allocation of funds to departments, and provide the school with overall curriculum leadership. However, Bush (1995) notes that one of the limitations of this top-down bureaucratic approach is that it assumes that decision made at the macro level are easily acceptable at the micro level.

Policy changes in Botswana introduced throughout the 1990s have introduced a greater range of managerial responsibilities for heads to generate greater efficiency and effectiveness (Hood, 1991), with the devolution of some powers and considerably more responsibilities away from the centre to the local school and community (Riley and MacBeath, 1998, 2003). School effectiveness became a dominant paradigm for the reorganisation of schools.

Within this effectiveness framing, the role of the head was considered to be central. The key task of the head was to link together and manage the implementation of policies "...ensuring the efficient and effective organisation, administration, management and control of staff, students and other resources to achieve the goals, aims and objectives established at both school and national levels" (Ministry of Education, 1994:7). In this model, the head is expected to engage with the following three groups who are constructed as stakeholders; the Ministry of Education, teachers, and parents.

2.2 The National Education: Modern Schools and New Policies

In 1976, ten years after Independence, the Botswana Government set up the first National Commission on Education. The main aim of the Commission

was to find out Batswana views on problems of access to education and how education might meet Botswana's labour market's needs (Botswana Government, 1977). The Commission employed the "Kgotla" system in gathering data for the report. The "Kgotla" is a wide consultative process, which affords all who attends the meeting to speak freely on all national issues without fear or loss of favour. The Commission had to address Kgotla meetings and listen to various views (Botswana Government, 1977).

Two of the major policies of the *Education for Kagisano* Report (1977) were the introduction of the free 9-years of basic education and abolition of fees from Primary to Cambridge Overseas School Certificate level (Form 5). The origins of the free 9-years of basic education can be traced back to the need nationally for skilled human resources for manpower development after Independence (Botswana Government, 1977) as well as the decisions taken by the 'All African States Conference' held at Addis Ababa (1967) where it was resolved that all states should provide free universal education (UPE) to their citizens. The free 9-years of basic education in Botswana introduced and established automatic promotion from primary to junior secondary school. This altered the calibre of the graduates of the junior secondary schools, which were seen to have experienced a weaker curriculum. Parents and employers did not approve of the change (Botswana Government, 1993). These led to the second Commission.

The second *Report of the National Commission on Education* (RNCE) took place in 1993. It was set up to evaluate the impact of the 1977 policy and to

consider how best to meet the new educational needs that were being placed on Botswana as a result of changes in the global economy (RNCE, 1993). Changes in the focus of education can be traced to two influences. One, it was from the *World Conference on Education for All* (1990). The second was from the school effectiveness literature which appears to have underpinned the RNCE (1993) Commission's policy. The emphasis in this policy is that schools need to be effective in order to provide quality education.

2.3 School Effectiveness

School effectiveness research became popular and taken up in policy circles because it claimed to demonstrate that "schools make a difference" (Thrupp, 1999: 17) to the progress of individual pupils (Hoy and Miskel, 1996; Riley and MacBeath, 1998, 2003; Coleman, 2003). The underlying assumption of the effective school research is that schools would make a difference if they included (i) well thought out structures and processes for managing, and (ii) the adoption and implementation of innovation for school improvement. However, school effectiveness research regards those who teach in and manage schools to be key actors in the production of a better education and that the school head is regarded as playing a key role.

Riley and MacBeath (1998) point out that the results from their study on effectiveness of leadership that they carried out in four countries (England, Denmark, France and Switzerland) is that a 'good' headteacher is described in the following terms; has a good education and is able to solve problems; is very experienced as a teacher; is able to understand children; provides good

example by their behaviours; is not racist and makes others to see that colour of the skin does not matter; keeps in touch with local community and gives everyone the same advantage. They conclude that the headteacher's ability to coordinate and sustain these is crucial to a school being effective.

The school effectiveness research's emphasis on the impact of schools on pupils' progress has influenced national and local governments to demand schools to be accountable. Parents too demanded the same (Riley and MacBeath, 1998). This approach, notes Thrupp (1999:17), spoke in an "optimistic and commonsense way to the needs of educators and policymakers" and was widely picked up internationally.

However, school effectiveness research has not been without its critics. Some writers argue that school effectiveness research tends to ignore school culture and issues of organisational change and therefore it is not an effective way of assessing schools (Silver, 1994). They also argue that 'effectiveness' is a value-laden concept and therefore it will prove difficult to define, and that there are differing achievement criteria of effectiveness.

2.4. Effective Leadership and Effective Schools in Botswana

The research on school effectiveness influenced conceptions of effective leadership. Riley and MacBeath (1998) argue that effective leadership means the ability of a leader to sustain relationships within the school community where all members are given an equal chance to participate in school

decision-making processes, not dissimilar to the tribal conceptions of leadership in Botswana.

School effectiveness is partially relevant and applicable to Botswana's context. Its influence can be seen in the terms of reference, discussion and policy recommendations of the 1993 Commission where the view was put that education in Botswana needed to be improved through "access, equity and effective learning which will prepare students more effectively for the world of work" (Botswana Government, 1993:iv). The Commission report was concerned not only with widening access, but also with restructuring the management of schools influenced by the school effectiveness paradigm (RNPE, 1994). In addition, the *Excellence in Education for the New Millenium* (Ministry of Education, 1999:12) states that "government has identified two key issues which must be taken into consideration for successful education development as: effective management of the education system and cost effectiveness". There was also an attempt to improve primary and secondary education by introducing new curriculum and greater participation of parents in school activities.

2.5 The Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE, 1994)

Mr Kedikilwe, then the Minister of Commerce and Industry, headed the Commission which produced the *Revised National Policy on Education* (1994). The appointment of the Commission was consistent with the declaration of the *World Conference on Education for All* (Haddad, et al, 1990) intended to improve the provision of quality education. There was a

view that the decision of the Government came at the right time as the "majority of Batswana were unhappy with the free 9-years of basic education" (Botswana Government, 1993: x). The overall objectives of the policy were "to raise educational standards at all levels, to emphasise science and technology in the education system and to improve management and administration to ensure higher learning achievement" (Botswana Government, 1994:5-6). The Commission used various methods, such as Kgotla meetings, interviews and consultancies, to collect data from all Batswana of all social status as to how education should be restructured.

The result of the Commission was the RNPE (1994), from which came the recommendation of 10-years of basic education. The education system in Botswana, like in many countries, is controlled by the state. This similarity is in line with the observation made about education system by Robertson and Dale (2000:117): that "education is almost universally a state-regulated if not state-funded service". The decision of when and how the education system had to change rested entirely with the Botswana Government. This is consistent with Grace's argument (1995:7) quoting Bernstein (1977:181) that "how a society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates the educational knowledge it considers to be public, reflects both the distribution of power and the principles of social control".

The RNPE (1994) recommendations led to major changes. While the student intake from primary to secondary schools was increased, schools were also pressed to focus on changes in the curriculum and the provision in order to

achieve what was termed 'quality' education. However, these changes had major implications for the role of secondary school headteachers. The Government had the responsibility to implement these changes. Despite concerns with 'quality' in the policy, there were not sufficient numbers of trained teachers available. Nor had the Government built the infrastructure required for such a major change. The national implementation did not take into account whether schools were ready to introduce new subjects. All these school shortcomings were faced by headteachers as a result of the new policies. Ironically too, despite the rhetoric around decentralisation and school development, the process that the Ministry of Education used to inform headteachers of the changes was a top–down one. The community, on the other hand, was expected by the Ministry of Education to play a new and key role in the school's activities. However, there were no adequate structures that the community could use to influence any of the school's decisions.

2.5.1 The Community and the School

From the RNPE (1994) there is more emphasis on a closer relationship between the school and the community that is, the parents and members of the School Board. The original relationship between the two was established as a result of the recommendations contained in the *Education for Kagisano Commission Report*, (Botswana Government, 1977) which recognised that there was a problem in the relationship between the decision making process in schools and the local communities. This is despite the fact that the community had previously contributed to education through building some of the secondary schools. The aim of the RNPE (1994) was to further encourage

strong parental participation and contributions in decision-making at secondary schools.

This emphasis assumed that a closer link between the school and parents would result in parents "continuing to contribute to their children's education" (Botswana Government, 1994:52). It is not clear how parents and members of the Boards of Governors were expected to achieve this. The assumption seemed to be that the formation of Parents and Teachers' Association, including the establishment of Boards of Governors in each school, would result in the active participation of parents in school decisions.

Tsayang's (1995) findings of the study she carried out in Botswana on the responsibilities of the communities to junior secondary schools indicated that, through the community and school-link, the Ministry of Education had abdicated its direct responsibility of school development to the community. She further argues that the community was taken for granted by the Ministry of Education because the Board members were not inducted into what they are expected to do in order to properly contribute to school governance once they have been elected.

The school, on the other hand, was expected to accept the community and recognise its important role in development of the school (Tsayang, 1995). The school-community relationship is often difficult because the community elects members of the school board and PTA but does not always understand what qualities and skills are required for the job.

These situations generate further responsibilities for secondary headteachers, as they must deal with the community through members of the Board of Governors and PTA representatives who, at the same time, may not understand their roles. Tsayang's (1995) findings indicate that instead of a headteacher being assisted by representatives of these committees, it is the head who must assist them to understand the processes involved in school decision-making. The school-community link has increased the responsibilities of headteachers in Botswana, especially when, for example, the school has to raise funds for projects while the headteacher takes on new roles, such as being the marketing manager of projects.

The community, on the other hand, expects the headteacher to lead effectively –measured largely through the results of the pupils (Hoy and Miskel, 1996). In Botswana, these results are published nationally. However, in the event that the school's national results are bad, or the school has a discipline problem, then the Ministry is likely to blame the head. Added to this, the community expects the headteacher to create a 'good' environment for studying and working within the school.

This complex layering of interrelated tasks requires a different kind of headteacher to the one who was expected to run schools up until the early 1980's in Botswana. The introduction of the RNPE in 1994, shaped by thinking around school effectiveness as a means of generating a quality school, heralded significant changes for heads in secondary schools.

2.5.2 Secondary Schools and the Implementation of the RNPE (1994)

The RNPE policies (1994) changed the nature of the relationship between the head and the school. As a result, secondary schools experienced substantial increases in student numbers from 1996 with 95% of the Primary School Leaving Certificate graduates proceeding to Form1 (Central Statistics Office, 1997), irrespective of their academic achievement in Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE). By 2000 there was 100% progression from primary to junior secondary education (Botswana Government, 2003:272). There was also an increase from 30 to 40 students per classroom, resulting in "overcrowding and making it difficult for teachers to move around and assist individual students" (Chapman and Synder, 1997:101).

Progression of pupils to secondary schools in this manner meant that teachers were left with little option but to teach mixed–ability students (Marope, 1997). Marope (1997) further notes that teachers were used to teach the best of the standard 7-school leavers' certificate. Teachers found this new arrangement difficult largely as they were not prepared for it. However, as Chapman and Snyder (1997:91), note in their study on improving classroom practice in Botswana, "virtually all innovations increase the complexity of teacher work-life by expecting them to use different instructional materials, teach in new ways or learn new content".

The other issue that teachers had to deal with as a result of the RNPE was the implementation of the official curriculum. Marope (1997:11) notes that "there is a difference between the prescribed curriculum and until it reaches the

classroom, it remains in the ideal or even theoretical realm". When it is implemented, the unanticipated problems became realities that heads and teachers then have to address.

2.6 The Role of the Headteachers and the Implementation of the RNPE (1994)

The RNPE (1994) policy placed more responsibility on headteachers to provide quality education, both through their curriculum leadership but also through a significantly enhanced role in school management. This can be seen in the job description for secondary school heads in Botswana, as detailed in the *Teaching Service Management* document to include (Ministry of Education, 1999:1):

> ...supervision of all staff members and students; planning and developing both formal and informal curriculum, ensuring proper conduct of both internal and external examinations, establishing a good relationship with the community, ensuring maintenance of the physical plant, grounds and equipments, proper finance and general administration.

Headteachers' tasks could now be described in terms similar to that elaborated by Crawford (2003:64); as planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling". Chapman and Synder (1997:96) point out that the main responsibilities of heads in Botswana include "school management, instructional supervision, school-community relationship and school–ministry communication".

However, despite the devolution of many managerial responsibilities to school heads, power and authority for the overall direction and administration of education remained firmly in the centre. Thus, despite the language of

decentralisation and the idea of change being driven from below, the model continued to be largely top-down, with educational change based on a rational technical process which is "initiated at the macro level from a central position and passes down to the micro level" of a school (Tabulawa, 1997: 103). The top-down model deployed by the Ministry of Education in Botswana has the prerogative to admit and allocate students to secondary schools. It further determines the educational goals while the headteacher has little or no power to refuse the mandated change.

2.6.1 Initial Preparation for Headship in Botswana

Despite the significant changes that have taken place in secondary schools and headteachers being expected to lead and manage schools, there is a surprising absence of emphasis on training to re-equip heads with necessary skills to manage these new and varied tasks. In the training materials, for instance, there is no mention of a training policy or any evidence of the systematic implementation and take-up of training programmes by heads. Yet, as Everard and Morris's (1996: x) note, it is important for headteachers' employers to invest in training because "school management is as complex as any other profession". Their argument is that the training of heads is essential because the tasks they perform are not related to what they were originally trained to do. Training is particularly important to promote what Zeichner (1994) refers to as "critical reflection". He describes this as a skill that "incorporates moral and ethical criteria into the discourse of practical action" (Zeichner, 1994:13). He acknowledges that heads with such skills should be able to ask the following questions: "which educational goals and which educational

experiences lead toward forms of life which are more just, equitable and so on?"

The *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1996) has been concerned with the issue of training of school heads. They noted, following an evaluation of 10 African countries they involved in developing 'Better Schools', that heads were expected to perform without formal training on leadership skills. In an 'Introductory module' developed for headteachers by the *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1996), they concluded that in Africa, "experienced and skilled teachers are customarily appointed to run complex schools without adequate preparation and back–up support" (*Commonwealth Secretariat*, 1996:iii). McNie et al (1991) further discuss the inadequacy of headship preparation in Africa. They observe that while some form of training has been undertaken for headteacher "...such training still does not reach all headteachers, either for pre-service or in-servicing training" (McNie et al, 1991:1). Hurst and Rodwell (1986) think that the problem of school leadership and management training is compounded by lack of research on training and the impact of training on individual heads in Africa.

2.7 Teachers Selection for Headship in Botswana

Headship vacancies in Botswana are advertised nationally while the requirements to qualify are stated as "a degree or diploma, 3 years or more experience as deputy headteacher or head of department, high professional competence, exceptional administrative and managerial skills" (Ministry of Education, 1994:12). These criteria confirm the *Commonwealth Secretariat*'s

(1996) assessment that 'good' teachers are appointed to headship without any qualification or skills on school leadership and management. However, a key question for this study is; if heads continue to be appointed on the basis of the above-mentioned criteria, what type of leadership and management support are in place for them from the Ministry of Education? This question leads me to consider the adequacy of the support system from the Ministry of Education for secondary school headteachers.

2.8 Recognition that New Skills are Required

It is worth noting that the Second Commission of 1993 recognised that the 10-years of basic education would have an impact on school leadership and management skills. For this reason, and as I have noted in Chapter 1, both the report of the Second Commission and the Revised Report (1994) recommended both the implementation of the 10-years of basic education *and* *a* training framework for headteachers. Furthermore, they noted that there should be "a structured national in-service training programme developed to guide in-service activities, starting from an orientation of a newly appointed teacher at the school level to the training of newly appointed headteachers and education officers" (Recommendation 104 (e), Botswana Government, 1994:47). These recommendations were to be implemented at the same time, with an establishment of a structured programme where "heads of schools should receive continuous management training involving skills of staff performance appraisal" (Recommendation 112 (c), Botswana Government, 1994:50). The omission of training in the final implementation blueprint,

however, poses the issue of whether training opportunities were available, and if not, whether heads regarded this situation as problematic for their headship.

There were three other initiatives that the Ministry of Education undertook on behalf of heads: first, the *Secondary School Management Project* (1996); second, *Headteacher Training and Support Programme for Africa* (Better Schools, 1993) by the *Commonwealth Secretariat*; and third an induction programme run by the Ministry of Education.

The Ministry of Education, in acknowledging that heads' are central in policy implementation, engaged with the Overseas Development Agency in a project called '*Secondary School Management Project'* (1993). This was designed to assist headteachers in acquiring management and leadership skills. The project undertook training needs analysis of secondary school headteachers in 1994, concluding that headteachers showed great interest in the project because "it would give them a new direction for their complex headship roles and help them to raise educational standards in their schools" (Ministry of Education, 1996:4). What is implied in this comment is that heads are aware of their training needs in leadership and management.

Second, the Ministry went further to engage in another project that was launched by the *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1993) in 10 English speaking countries to assess the training needs of their headteachers. It concluded that there was a need to have continuous training for heads. The workshops of the *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1993) culminated in the development of 7

modules covering the following topics; "self-development for educational managers, principles of educational management, personnel management, managing the curriculum and resources, financial management, monitoring school effectiveness and governance of the school" (Module 1, *Commonwealth Secretariat*, 1993:i). The intention was that heads would read this material and as a result increase their knowledge that might assist them to better understand school leadership and its context. However, it is not clear whether both the BEAMS (1996) and the Better School training materials (seven modules, 1993) did have a positive impact on acquisition of leadership and management skills.

Third, support for headship was provided through an induction provided by the Ministry of Education, and was generally expected to take place immediately after the heads were appointed to school leadership position. The importance of induction is emphasised in BEAMS (Ministry of Education, 1996:1) because of "the rapid expansion of the system in which large numbers of headteachers, deputies and senior teachers were appointed hastily—many without degrees, without proper training, without proper experience of a senior position in a secondary school explains, partly, the strong support which the school management need". However, as I will show later in this dissertation, this did not take place, and if it did, it was sporadic and not systematic.

So far I have been discussing the lack of a training policy in the Botswana education system, and limited training opportunities. It is also important to

ask whether the content of the BEAMS (1996) and the Better Schools (1993) induction modules developed by both the Ministry of Education and the *Commonwealth Secretariat* respectively reflected the specific needs of leadership and management skills of heads in Botswana. In other words, it is not simply that training is made available, but what kind of content is included in these programmes, and does the content reflect that particular knowledge and skills that are valued in Botswana's schools and communities?

2.8.1 Borrowing of Philosophies

It is often assumed that a 'good' policy in one region can be good in another. There are traces of this assumption in training materials for heads in Botswana as briefly discussed below. There are also assumptions in the BEAMS materials that schools can be run like businesses. However, this is not consistent with Botswana's school context because of the following reasons. First, the Government funds all schools in Botswana so the comparison of schools with the 'entrepreneurial model' (Everard and Morris, 1996) has limited applicability. For example, BEAMS Volume 6 focuses on 'Management by Objectives' (MBO adapted from Drucker, 1989). Mullins (1994:414) describes MBO as "a process whereby the superior and subordinate managers of an organisation jointly identify its common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guide for operating the units and assessing the contribution of each of its members". Again this is difficult to apply to Botswana's setting, especially as heads implement policies from the Government within defined frames and contexts, and do not have any part in

their designing. The BEAMS (Ministry of Education, 1996) literature also reflects the language of the school effectiveness literature in the UK, where certain ways of organising and managing schools are said to make a difference to students' performance and that the head in particular plays a crucial role (Hoy and Miskel, 1992; Silver, 1994; Everard and Morris, 1996).

A further example is found in Volume 19 on 'Managing Change', which explains how a headteacher has to deal with change. The information contained in this volume is similar to that found within the Commonwealth Secretariat's (1993) module 1 - 6 in "Better Schools, Unit 8:56" where it states that "a headteacher is to be influencing results arising from changes instead of waiting to survive the effects of change". But change is a planned and deliberate attempt to bring about improvement. How, then, can headteachers influence change in their school when major changes are dictated by the centre? A further assumption by those who wrote these documents is that headteachers will read these materials and understand them, even though the concepts do not reflect a realistic view of Botswana headteachers' contexts. It could, therefore, be difficult for heads to read these materials and apply them.

The problem with transferring concepts from one setting or region to another is that there can be a lack of relevance. The *Commonwealth Secretariat* (1993) modules do attempt to develop an'African' perspective, however, is not necessarily Botswana's perspective. Conflating Botswana with Africa, especially given the huge cultural and social differences from one African

country to the next, engages in a similar kind of fallacy as conflating Botswana with the United Kingdom. Yet, this is clearly exemplified by the contents of the modules. Second, the modules do not consider individual headteacher's different levels of experience, as a result of age, background and interests (MacMahon and Bolam, 1990). Rather, the modules assume that through self-study, headteachers will understand the content of the modules, despite the fact that the modules are often not relevant to the context and conditions that these heads experience and have to manage.

Borrowing philosophies, particularly for African countries, is a sensitive matter, particularly given their colonial history. Yet, ironically, because of their colonial past, not only is there an assumption that concepts developed in countries like Great Britain are relevant, but these ideas have placed their heavy imprint on many of the reforms and reviews of education throughout Africa (for instance as in the work of the Commonwealth Secretariat) and in the case of Botswana, the work of the Commissions. The irony is that not only has the colonial history resulted in a very limited amount of 'local' or indigenous knowledge on education (partly as research has often not funded local knowledges), but that at least literature from elsewhere has helped local academics understand better the nature of the policies and ideas that have been borrowed. Until sufficient breadth and depth of local knowledge around leadership and management in Botswana is developed, my view is that what is called for is critical contextualisation of literature and understandings developed elsewhere.

I have used literature from UK and South Africa not only because of the paucity of research literature on training in Botswana but also in order for me to better understand how a training policy might be developed specifically for, Botswana basing my conclusions on the study's data. I see this as critical rather than uncritical borrowing. It should also be noted that already in Botswana self-help training packages like, 'BEAMS', are influenced by literature from the UK, and in that sense it is helpful to understand the kinds of such literatures.

2.9 Conclusion

In this chapter I have discussed the transition of Botswana's education system and its leadership from the pre-colonial to the modern one (Parsons, 1983; RNPE, 1994). Further, I have shown how leadership has become central to the delivery of what the policies referred to as 'quality' education. However, in Botswana there is an assumption that a 'good' teacher will make an effective headteacher. This seems not to be consistent with current demands for school leaders to have specific skills to manage and adapt to change (Horner, 2003).

Second, while the implementation of the RNPE (1994) changed the role of the headteacher from instructional leader to include school leadership and management, in the final implementation blueprint, training for heads becomes invisible. The questions that then arise are; how have heads acquired leadership and management skills to implement the changes? How do heads and teachers feel about a rather unorganised system of professional development for heads?

CHAPTER 3

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT SKILLS FOR HEADSHIP: REVIEWING THE LITERATURE

3.0 Introduction

Chapter 2 gave an overview of the pre-colonial educational form of leadership and the change from the pre-colonial education to the modern educational system. In this chapter I set out to review the literature that deals with leadership, management and training of headteachers.

The main task in this chapter is to explain the key concepts of leadership, management and training, all of which are central to this study. In addition, I discuss the two approaches to leadership for school heads that have particular resonance for training; a traits approach and contingency model. Two key literatures are drawn upon for this task; the preparation of heads and training policy in UK, and the establishment of leadership training centres in South Africa following the 1996 *Education Management Development Task Team* (Department of Education, 1996). While I recognise that these two literatures might suggest the borrowing of philosophies, as I argued in the last chapter, not only have these literatures influenced policy developments in Botswana as a result of the historical relationship between the United Kingdom and countries such as South Africa and Botswana. I also noted that there was a very limited local literature that refers to leadership and management training,

and what I would hope to reflect in this chapter is a process of critical contextualisation.

3.1 Leadership

Leadership as a concept is value-laden and has many definitions. According to Mullins (2005:281), there are over "400 definitions of leadership". For the purposes of this study, I intend to work with three that pick up on different aspects. For instance, Robbins (1996:365) states that:

> ...leadership is the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals.

Hodgkinson (1983:198), on the other hand, argues that leadership, as a concept, does not consist of one variable but

> Leadership is conceived globally as consisting of a set of variables which constitute a universe of observations.

His argument implies that there are as many ways of defining leadership, as there are people, writers and researchers who have attempted or continue to define leadership. These differences in understanding leadership have resulted in no universal definition of leadership (Hoyle, 1986; Slater, 1995; Fidler, 1997). This seems to suggest that leadership is dependent on the pooling of observations of individuals about leadership that is specific to particular settings or contexts.

Another definition is provided by Lord Seiff quoted by Mullins (2005:282) that:

> Leadership is the moral and intellectual ability to visualise and work for what is best for the company and its employees. Effective leadership has to be seen, and it is best seen in action.

Each of the three definitions above are different in important ways. Robbins' (1996) definition describes two features of leadership. The first is the ability of the leader to influence others to develop a common purpose and trust in that individual who has formal power and authority. Second, the followers are persuaded toward goal achievement. This definition is simple as it describes leadership based on two aspects; of a leader taking action, and followers willingly taking responsibility to achieve goals. However, following this view forward, it is difficult to determine which goals would be desirable and how would followers be persuaded to accept and trust the leader's view. While a simple definition like this makes it easier to conceptualise leadership, it overlooks the complexity of leadership in ways conceptualised by Hodgkinson (1983) as specific to contexts. Lord Seiff's definition above highlights moral and ethical dimensions as well as commitment to the vision and goals of the organisation.

However, taken together, these three definitions point to three dimensions of leadership. The first is that an individual influences others to carry out tasks to achieve the desired objectives – that is it is *persuasive*. The second is that leadership practices are specific to *particular contexts*. The third dimension is that it involves *values which inform actions*. These three elements, persuasion; practices given meaning in specific contexts; and, values that guide action, are useful and will be drawn upon in this study to enable me to examine leadership from the point of view of the school heads and teachers,

However, what these three dimensions that I have identified above do not do, is provide us with any insight into whether they are acquired or that they are innate characteristics of individuals. Leadership theories depart at this point, as I will show below.

3.1.1 Traits approach

The origin of the trait approach to leadership can be traced back to the great thinker, Aristotle, who believed that individuals are born with unique characteristics that make them leaders. This influenced many people to assume that leaders were successful because of their natural abilities. "Indeed so strong has that assumption been in the history of organised life that it was long thought that leaders were born not made. And hereditary leadership provided the basic pattern for centuries. Indeed this criterion was strengthened by claims of divine authority as well, and such claims have not been restricted to any one segment of the human community or to any one period of human history" (Thew, 2001:34).

This belief has led to the assumption that such qualities may be hereditary and it is sometimes used to explain leadership. Mullins (1994:234) notes Drucker's argument that "leadership is of utmost importance. Indeed there is no substitute for it. But leadership cannot be created or promoted. It cannot be taught or learned". Mullins (1994) emphasises that leadership skills is a result of natural inheritable characteristics and the reason why some people are likely to be 'natural' and 'better' leaders than others. The focus is on the leader having the innate capacity to do the job rather than on the job itself.

Consequently, a considerable amount of research has sought to verify whether there are natural characteristics that make one individual a 'better' leader than another. Stogdill (1981), after reviewing 163 studies that were carried out to prove if there are leadership traits that were distinct to certain individuals, concluded that the following traits characterise a leader; a strong drive for responsibility, task completion, vigour and persistence in pursuit of goals, being venturesome, and originality in problem solving. But in my view, these are learnt rather than natural characteristics. However, Hoy and Miskel (1996: 379-80) argue that it is possible to distinguish three broad categories of traits within the literature, namely, "personality, motivation and skill". They argue that the combination of these traits contributes to the effectiveness of a leader.

3.1.2. Contesting traits theory

More recent research has contested the trait approach outlined above (Mullins, 1994; Fidler, 1997). Hoy and Miskel (1996) advanced the following four reasons for this: first, the idea of leaders being born and not made is contested by studies that have shown that people are able to develop leadership skills if they are given appropriate training. Second, leaders become effective not only because of their traits but also as a result of influences in, for example, the working environment. Third, a person who assesses leaders to find out who amongst them is a successful leader is necessarily exercising a subjective opinion. In this case each may focus on quite different qualities. The fourth is that the list of possible traits of leadership is so long that there is no general agreement as to which is the most important. These kinds of observations

have undermined the 'leaders are born' approach, giving ground to what are known as contingency models of leadership.

3.1.3 Contingency model of leadership

In response to critiques of the trait approaches, Fiedler (1967) developed the contingency model of leadership. His view is that leadership is comprised of the leader's urge to satisfy her/his personal needs and in achieving an organisation's goals (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Fiedler's contingency model has three components: (i) leadership style, which is influenced by the motivational needs of the leader; (ii) situational component, which is determined by the relationship between the leader and the group, the way the task has been arranged, the positional power of the leader in the organisation, and the extent to which the leader could use her/his power to reward or punish other employees; and (iii) group effectiveness, which depends on the leader's style and control of the situation. In summary, he viewed the contingency model as a process where;

> ...the groups' performance will be contingent upon the appropriate matching of leadership style and the degree of favourableness of the group situation for the leader, that is, the degree to which the situation provides the leader with influence over his group members (Fidler, 1967: 151).

These three components emphasize the importance of the leader and the influence of the situation on the leader. Fiedler is, therefore, suggesting that leadership style will vary depending upon how the group regards the leader, as well as the organisational situation. The positional power of the leader, task structure, and leader-member relations need the leader to have the necessary skills in order to realise the tasks associated with the position that they are in.

If this is not the case then, as Hoy and Miskel (1996) point out, the leader is very likely to have little impact on those in the organisation around the leader.

Hoy and Miskel (1996) conclude that the interrelationship between these three dimensions acknowledge the leader as being central. This view reinforces the legitimate power and authority of a leader in an organisation, similar to Weber's bureaucratic model, whereby the leader has positional power given by the organisation to direct other employees to work, to make decisions, and to implement future strategies. This emphasis on the leader's power reinforces the leader's power as well as hierarchy amongst employees, and does not recognise the power of other employees within the same organisations.

This view of leadership is dependent on a particular understanding of a school. It assumes that teachers in a school have either no or little power and make little impact on the headteacher, and it could be argued is a model reflected in the school effectiveness literature which has tended to shape policy and practice in Botswana. Such a view is criticised because it does not conceptualise leadership as distributed amongst actors within an organisation who have sources of power which need to be taken into account, such as teachers' knowledge and skills.

3.1.4. Distributed leadership

Criticism of leadership as being what we might call 'head-centric' has emerged, led by writers like Gronn, (2002). He talks about the importance of developing a distributed view of leadership which would require schools to

'de-centre' the leader (Gronn, 2002:) and subscribe to the view that leadership resides 'not solely in the individual at the top, but in every person at entry level who in one way or another, acts as a leader' (Goleman, 2002:14). Distributed leadership therefore means multiple sources of guidance and direction, 'following the contours of expertise in an organisation, made coherent through a common culture. It is the 'glue' of a common task or goal-improvement of instruction-and a common frame of values for how to approach that task' (Elmore 2000:15). This view, while attractive – largely as it embraces the possibility of leadership being spread across the organisation and therefore one that I intend to return to in the conclusion, was not used as a way of exploring leadership in my fieldwork, largely as it is normative (that is what should be) rather than an approach that helps us understand what is.

3.2 Leadership as Learned Knowledge and Skill

The view that leadership is acquired knowledge and skills considers human beings as being not only capable of, but also motivated toward learning particular knowledges and skills that will enable them to perform in the organisation. This is a concept derived from the work of Bandura – a social cognitivist theorist (Bandura, 1986). Bandura, argues that people are self-organising, proactive and self-regulating, rather than reactive organisms shaped by environmental forces or driven by concealed inner impulses. It is this theoretical approach that has influenced proponents of training for school leadership, such as Morrant (1981) and Buckley, (1985). The argument they use is that great changes are taking place in schools which are placing new demands on headteachers (Buckley, 1985). Everard and Morris (1996)

acknowledge this argument; they also think that the skills necessary for school heads to do their work have changed and that training is necessary because "leadership and management can be as complex as any other profession like law, vet or a doctor who are trained for 4 to 6 years" (Everard and Morris, 1996: x). As we saw in Chapter 2, there have been significant changes to secondary education in Botswana as a result of policies that have promoted the expansion of numbers of students as well as how schools are organised and managed (that is the introduction of new managerialism).

3. 3 Leadership and New Managerialism

The concept of managerialism became important throughout the 1980s and 1990s to describe changes that were taking place as a result of restructuring of public sectors in both developed and many developing economies (Hood, 1991). These changes had far reaching consequences for the organisation and management of schools. The focus on 'letting the managers manage' and devolving responsibilities that were once located in the centre to the local site, resulted in significant changes for the work of the head. Key aspects of managerialism are; a focus on service delivery, greater efficiency in running the organisation, increased levels of public accountability and a focus on outcomes. Schools were expected to demonstrate these outcomes. Riley and MacBeath (2003:177) observes that managerialism in UK schools emphasised cutting costs and doing more for less as a result of better-quality management (Coleman, 2003). Similar changes also took place in Botswana as a result of the policies of the National Commissions outlined in Chapter 2. In the UK, management and the market became closely intertwined in government

thinking (Grace, 1995). Ball (1993:65) described this as "steering at a distance-a new paradigm of public governance".

3.4 Shifting the Balance in Leadership and Management

The work of school head in running a school has always involved both leadership and management tasks. For this reason it is important to discuss the concept of management. However the relationship between these concepts is based on history, politics and the changing cultural and ideological relation within the wider society of which these two concepts belong. The kinds of changes outlined above—new managerialism—resulted in an increased emphasis on managing and management in local sites.

There are two main positions taken with regard to the relationship between leadership and management. The first group comprise those who consider management to be distinct from leadership (Bass, 1990). One such writer is Mullins. Mullins (1994:9) defines management as "the cornerstone of organisational effectiveness, and is concerned with arrangements for the carrying of organisational processes and execution of work". There are three points, which can be drawn from Mullins' (1994) definition above. First, management is central in ensuring that organisational tasks are carried out. Second, there are people who are controlled to carry out the necessary tasks. Third, carrying out these tasks is mandatory. This general definition of management does not include all aspects of management such as; planning, organising, directing, commanding and controlling (Mullins, 2005:197).

The other writer who tried to show the difference between leadership and management concepts is Watson (1983). He uses a 7-s organisational framework, which is based on the following; strategy, structure, systems, styles, staff and skills. His conclusion was that managers tend to rely on strategy, structure and systems, while leaders use style, staff, skills and shared goals. This difference shows managers adopting an impersonal and passive attitude towards goals while leaders adopt a more personal attitude towards goals.

Writers and researchers who argue that management and leadership in school context have become closer to the point of being inseparable take the second position. The reason why the association of these concepts has become closer is due to an emphasis of managerial aspects in educational leadership. Taylor (2001) advanced an explanation that the relationship between the two concepts is a result of viewing leadership through managerial perspectives. In this perspective a manager is concerned with maintenance, follows the script and uses legal and bureaucratic authority. The application of this approach in schools in UK changed the role of heads because they were given greater responsibility to take control of particular aspects of school organisation (Busher, 1997). These were seen as chief executives who were responsible for employment of teachers, financial accountability, meeting students and parental needs as well as policy implementation (Busher, 1997). The third reason is advanced by Grace (1995): that as a result of the complexity of leadership, and confusion between leadership and management due to an emphasis of management, leadership has then been studied through a

management lens. The fourth reason is that the emphasis on managerialism in school leadership led to competition between schools for better students' outcomes, illustrated for instance through league tables (Riley and MacBeath, 2003).

In this study I will be trying to understand, through the academic and policy literature and the views of heads and teachers, the nature of leadership and management in Botswana secondary schools, and the implications of the shift toward greater managerialism for learning to be an effective head.

3.5 Training as a Means for Learning to be an Effective Head

Training is associated with learning, a concept that originates from the social cognitive theory developed by Bandura (1986). This theory recognises that human functioning is a product of "a dynamic interplay of personal, behavioural and environmental influences" (Pajares, 2005:1). Developing this point, we can argue that training, which is a form of systematically organised learning, can be a central means for the acquisition of skills.

Buckley and Caple, 1995:1-2) define training as:

> ...a planned and systematic effort to modify or develop knowledge/ skill/ attitude through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose, in the work situation, is to enable an individual to acquire abilities in order that he / she can perform adequately a given task or job.

Buckley and Caple's (1995) definition indicates that training should be organised and specific to the tasks, which are in turn related to the job. Training is different to education. The difference is that education is more

general and tends to imply goals that take a long time to materialise, whilst training refers to a type of education that is "intended to support and assist the professional development that headteachers ought to experience throughout their working lives" (Morrant, 1981:3). He shows that training can result in specific skills acquisition. This way of thinking about training will be used to inform my questions in the data-gathering phase.

Given that there is no framework that operationalised training in Botswana, it is useful at this point to reflect on developments in the UK. This then informs my discussion and consideration of recommendations. In the UK, national standards are designed for different groups within the education system (Bush and Jackson, 2002) based on a competency model. Jirasinghe and Lyons (1996) argue that there are benefits in adopting a competency-based approach to school management and leadership. Medley et al (1989) view competency as any characteristics that enhance a jobholder's ability to perform effectively. Ouston (1997:75) agrees that competency is: "a description of something which a person who works in a given occupation area should be able to do in showing her/his action, behaviour or ability to do the job assigned". For example, a competent head would be one who is able to feel confident to carrying out her/his tasks, such as, developing a school's vision, communicating effectively, managing people and resources, listening to all members of the school community both within and externally, and appraising teachers. Both Medley et al (1989) and Ouston (1997) demonstrate that competency is demonstrated when a headteacher is able to combine the performance of relevant tasks with the ability to manage group tasks. They

also have to respond to routine procedures at the same time as responding to general aspects of the work.

3.6 Establishing a Training Policy: Learning from the UK and South Africa

Reeves and Dempster (1998) argue that effective training requires a programme that is adequately funded as well as being supported by a set of expectations that heads should have access to training institutions in order to upgrade their skills.

Two key literatures are drawn upon for this task; the preparation of heads and establishment of a training policy in the UK, and the establishment of leadership training centres in South Africa following the 1996 *Education Management Development Task Team* (Department of Education, 1996). These two programmes are used for two reasons. As I have argued in Chapter 2, Botswana's education system has been linked to the British education system from the time when Botswana was one of the protectorates until recently in 1999 when the Government decided to de-link the local Form 5 examinations from being awarded by the Cambridge University. However, the link is still strong. Botswana still relies on models and literature used in UK. Second Botswana shares some common history with South Africa, as they are both ex-protectorates. At a certain time (around 1895 to 1948) their educational systems were similar, even though after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1948 the South African education system differed completely from Botswana's. In addition, Batswana share a similar cultural background with the South Africans in the North West Province. These two

scenarios are therefore used to help develop an understanding of what might a training policy and programme entail in Botswana.

In the UK, Local Education Authorities expect heads to manage schools effectively and to make a myriad of decisions that were under circumstances made by different actors. This expectation created a need for heads to improve their knowledge of management issues. By 1983, the Department of Education and Science (DES) "sponsored a programme of management training for heads and established the National Development Centre for School Management Training at the University of Bristol" (Bush, 2003:9). Subsequent to this, in 1989, the British Government appointed the *School Management Task Force* who produced a report, which established mentoring schemes for new heads (Bush, 2003). Bush (2003) further points out that "the next major event in England and Wales was the establishment of the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) that took an interest in the leadership and management development and pre-service training of headteachers. The TTA set up the National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) in 1997" (Bush, 2003:9-10). This is said to be the first national qualification for aspiring heads in the UK (Bush, 2003).

Funding for training of headteachers used to be disbursed by the Local Education Authority (LEA) Buckley (1985). However, training programmes were uncoordinated. This changed when a common programme for all heads was established. Bush and Jackson (2002:419) refer to earlier programmes as "disconnected initiatives for school leadership and management training

during the 1980s and 19990's. As a result of this, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) was established, highlighting "the profile for school leadership and leadership preparation" (Bush and Jackson, 2002:419) in UK.

The National College for Leadership was given the responsibility for the National Qualification for Headteachers. The Government committed £10 million to build the headquarters of National College for School Leadership in Nottingham, committing £10 million per year for three years for mounting the NCSL's programme (Caldwell et al, 2003: 118). The NCSL introduced new schemes "such as; new vision: induction to Headship for new heads and Learning from the Middle for subject leaders and other middle managers" (Bush, 2003:10).

Leadership training in South Africa is different from the UK programme. After gaining Independence in 1994, the South African Government, through the South African Schools Act of 1996, sought to address the issues of inequality and quality education. In pursuit of this, the 1996 *Task Team on Education Management Development*—commissioned by the first national Minister of Education—recommended that management institutes be set up at Provincial level (McLennan & Thurlow, 2003). The policy to establish new management institutes was to serve as strategies that would ensure "that school leaders would have access to programmes that would capacitate and support them as they execute their duties" (http://www.mgslg.co.za, 2005:12).

As a result of this recommendation, some research was carried out to provide the 'how' of establishing such an institution. One of the groups that carried out the research was the *Canadian South African Education Management Programme* which focused "on improving education management levels in Gauteng" (http://www.mgslg.co.za, 2005:12). Subsequent to this, in 2002 *The Road Less Travelled* submitted a "comprehensive argument around establishing a management and governance academy in Gauteng" (http://www.mgslg.co.za, 2005:12). On the basis of these researches, the Matthew Goniwe School for Leadership and Governance was established by the Gauteng Department of Education in August 2003. This is a Provincial institution.

The national support for improving human resource skills is also emphasised by the *Human Resource Development Strategy of South Africa* (2001/2002). Its purpose is to strengthen the aims and objectives outlined in other official documents regarding provision of people "with a solid educational foundation for social participation" (South Africa Government, 2001:4). It is worth noting that despite the above attempts "the current situation in South Africa still is that school management largely remains uncoordinated and directionless with limited leverage available to departments of education to make school managers accountable" (van Rooyen, 2005:19). According to van Rooyen, 2005), some of the provincial management training centres have not been established because there is no national leadership training policy that emphasises the national requirements for all heads to be trained and the time they are expected to have been trained. This contributes to other

fundamental problems such as funding and coordination at the national to ensure establishment of all provincial management training centres. McLennan and Thurlow (2003) express the same view that Provinces are struggling to meet the expected management training for their educational leaders because there is no coherent national policy to guide them.

I acknowledge that South African experiences on school leadership and management are different from Botswana's experiences but I have used it because of their similar colonial education systems. The South African experience is relatively new and could provide a reference for the Southern African Development Corporation (SADC) member states (Botswana, Angola, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe). Further, Batswana share cultural values with South Africans in the North West Province. In addition, both countries share a border and if it is found necessary to carry out a feasibility study to establish a leadership training policy in Botswana, visitation and consulting counterparts in South Africa would not be as costly as it would be if that was to be done in UK.

These two examples from the UK and South Africa provide some evidence that in order to establish leadership training it is crucial to have a training policy that provides a framework. These crystallise the idea that head's acquisition of leadership and management skills require a structure for direction. I will return to this issue in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8 of this dissertation.

3.7 Why Training Sometimes Fails to Deliver Effective Headship?

Training headteachers does not necessarily resolve all the problems associated with ineffective schools or even ineffective heads. Fullan (1991:316) indicates that the following factors contribute to the failure of training; first, "short workshops that are designed for a group of people without taking into account individual headteacher's training needs and where topics are frequently selected by trainers other than those whom the training is intended". Second, there might be limited follow-up to support ideas and practices that were introduced during the training. Third, follow up evaluation may occur "infrequently and recognition of the differential impact of positive and negative factors within the systems to which these headteachers must return to are not taken into account" (Fullan, 1991:316).

Furthermore, headteachers' skills are constantly constrained by changes in school policies due to local, national and global competitiveness, which has driven most national educational programmes to the "quick fix in school effectiveness," (Buckley, 1985; Riley and MacBeath, 2003:174). Riley and MacBeath (2003) argue that 'a quick fix' is a short-term strategy, which a national government could decide to borrow to plaster over the structural problem, for instance a government may decide to adopt a policy from somewhere in order to solve its national educational problem. However, this does not necessarily address the real problem. The design and adoption of 'quick-fix' policies take place without involving the schools or headteachers from the planning stage. The majority of headteachers, therefore, do not know what would be the immediate outcome of the 'quick-fix' and its future

implications for their leadership skills (Riley and MacBeath, 2003). Part of this study is to find out how lack of involvement of headteachers on the planning of the educational change and their non-preparation to implement the changed policy has affected headteachers.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has explored conceptions of leadership, management and training within the wider literature in order to develop an understanding of these ideas. In particular I drew attention to those theories that assert that leaders are born and contrasted these with theories that argue leaders are made. In concluding this argument, I suggested that there is good evidence that leaders are born to be made. This opens up the possibility for thinking of the place for learning for heads, or training. Not only does this suggest that training is important, but that training is important to enable heads to lead and manage complex organisations and complex changes that have occurred in the public sectors, including education, is crucial. In this respect, I showed how the emergence of new public management tipped the balance in the nature of knowledge and skills away from leadership focused more around running a formal bureaucracy and providing curriculum leadership to one where school heads were expected to run schools more along the lines of small corporate firms. The question that this now raises is the nature and extent to training for secondary school heads in Botswana, and how heads and those who experience heads leadership and management – teachers—feel about their levels of competence.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the methodology and methods chosen for this study. The chapter begins with an outline of the major approaches to educational research as a way of locating the interpretive approach. It then moves on to provide the rationale for the case study, outlines issues of access to conduct the study, the research methods, data collection procedures and conclusion.

4.1 Major Approaches to Educational Research

There are different approaches to carry out research – largely framed by different ontological and epistemological claims. Many authors located these claims into two large approaches – qualitative and quantitative, reflecting concerns with how data is collected and analysed. Crotty (1998), on the other hand, suggests that there are at least five possible paradigmatic approaches, including positivism, constructivism, interpretivism, feminism and critical theory. Given that I want to develop insights into understandings and practices in particular contexts as opposed to, for example, collecting data to generate correlations and confirm theory, I needed to use an approach that would enable me to record and make sense of the perceptions, attitudes and actions of school heads and teachers in those settings where the head as the

school leader operates. An interpretative approach was particularly useful for my purpose.

4.1.1 Hermeneutic/Interpretive

Schwandt (2000:191) indicates that "interpretivism and hermeneutics are generally characterised as the Verstehen tradition in the human sciences which were developed as a result of reactions to neo-Kantian German historians and sociologists (Dilthey, Rikert, Simmel, Weber) in the 19th and early 20th century". At that time the dominant philosophy was positivism. The emphasis of interpretive and hermeneutic was that human sciences were fundamentally different from the natural sciences because human sciences aim to understand human action.

According to Delanty (1997:42), hermeneutic comes from the Greek myth; 'hermes'-means messenger of gods. 'Hermes' refers to an interpretive process of dialogue. Hermeneutics as a methodological concept emphasises textual interpretation and has continued to guide the hermeneutics tradition that regards society as a text. The person credited for establishing hermeneutics as a science of human meaning was Friedrich Schleiermacher. Delanty (1997) points out that Schleiermacher had described hermeneutics as an interpretation of meaning, which could be applied to all forms of dialogue. Hermeneutic/interpretive approaches evolved from an analysis of texts to the study of culture, in particular, how the different cultures and contexts of the world could be understood over time.

The main assumptions of the interpretive approach are briefly discussed below. The first assumption is that data is descriptive and interpretive. It is argued in this approach that a researcher should describe and interpret the activities of what is being researched in order to reach the deeper levels of reality because meaning is socially constructed. The second assumption is that knowledge is based on personal experiences that originate from context. The third assumption is that this approach views interpreting knowledge as a process of improving self-understanding of the social reality from those researched. Cohen et al (2000:22) agree with this view by quoting Beck (1979); that interpretive paradigm is a process that helps a researcher "understand from within" what one is researching. Schwandt (2000:193) also agrees that "interpretivists aim to reconstruct the self-understanding of actors engaged in particular actions. And in so doing, they assume that the inquirer cannot claim that the ways actors make sense of their experiences are irrelevant to social scientific understanding because actors' ways of making sense of their actions are constitutive of their actions". The fourth assumption of this approach is based on humanist assumptions; that is, different cultures and historical periods have different values and therefore there is an underlying belief that the world is meaningful. The fifth assumption is that there is linguistic constructivism and because language is a symbolic sign and meanings differ from society to another the researcher need to understand those meanings and activities of those researched (Delanty, 1997; Schwandt, 2000).

The purpose of an interpretive researcher is to understand secondary school heads as individual social actors, focusing particularly on how they describe and interpret the world around them which produces shared meanings (Cohen et al, 2000). Usher (1996) points out that interpretation is a search for deep meanings of particular events giving rise to new theoretical insights. The data collected for the interpretive research takes the form of interviews, field notes and transcripts. Using Punch (2001) and Bassey's (1990) framework, it can be described as qualitative (Bassey, 1990). The data is analysed through interpretation and description.

4.2 A Choice of an Interpretive Research Approach

The key objects of study in this research are as follows; the implementation of the Revised National Policy on Educational (RNPE, 1994); the changing role of a secondary school headteacher in Botswana against the context of Revised National Policy on Educational as perceived by heads, teachers and selected Ministry officials. This research is largely interpretive in that it seeks to understand leadership and management training for secondary school heads from the point of view of the participants (headteachers, teachers and Secondary Department officials), national policy and the literature on leadership and management training.

4.3 Methodological Rationale for the Current Study

A case study allows a researcher to look intensively into the activities of an individual unit in a more 'holistic' way without pre-determined specific variables. It can be a single case or multiple cases (Yin, 1994). The length of

time a researcher may take to study the case may vary from a week, month, year or longer (Stake, 1994). Bassey (1999) classifies an educational case into the following three categories; theory seeking and theory testing, story telling and picture drawing, and evaluative case study. These categories can contribute to the theoretical framework, which underpins both educational policy changes and leadership and management of an educational practice.

The case study approach has a long history in both anthropology and sociology, where it is associated with ethnography. In the event that schools were the object of study, then the theories of schooling were developed and located in either anthropological or sociological framework (Crossley and Vulliamy, 1997). The case study is understood to be a representation of other similar cases. Many researchers argue that once a case has been identified, in-depth interviews and observations from such a case could provide insights into the class of events drawn from and related to it (Bassey, 1999).

Qualitative researchers regard the case study as an important research strategy in its own right. The case study requires the collection of extensive data in order to produce an in-depth understanding of the entire subject, which is being studied. For example, data sources may comprise of interviews, written documents, questionnaire and field notes that are usually consulted and monitored by the researcher in order to provide specific data (Cohen and Manion, 1994). The outcome of a case study usually has potential to disseminate findings, which could be down to earth, and related to readers' own experience (Crossley and Bennett, 1997).

4.3.1 The Present Case Study Strategy

This study is based on integration of interests. Stake (1994) identifies three forms of interests, which may influence the researcher. The first interest is called intrinsic. This is when a researcher gets excited and wants to find out about the success or failure of an innovation. The second interest is called instrumental, and it is when the researcher studies a case broadly but focuses on how the case is hindered by other factors.

The third interest is referred to as collective. This is when the researcher chooses to study several subjects or cases, as in this study several schools rather than just one. I have a desire to know more about the provision of leadership training for school heads in Botswana (intrinsic). Rather than to broadly study the impact of the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE, 1994) on secondary school headteachers' roles, I was specifically interested in the leadership and management skills that headteachers needed for their work in schools, and how to establish a training policy to address their training needs (instrumental). The type of case study selected for this study is a multi-case study. Punch (2001:152) quotes Stake (1994) arguing that this type of case study is "when the instrumental case study is extended to cover several cases, to learn more about the phenomenon". In this type of case study, the focus is both within and across cases.

Eight secondary schools were selected as cases (collective) to explore through description, analysis and perceptions of views about the criteria of appointment and forms of provision of leadership and management training to

heads. The case study is meant to describe and analyse the real life context of being a secondary school leader and manager during the implementation of the RNPE (1994), the skills required and how they could be improved.

4.4 Research Processes and Methods

Once I had decided on the broad approach to the study, I needed to begin the work of choosing schools, gaining permission for the study, and access to conduct the study in schools. This is followed by thinking in more detail about the kinds of research methods and data analysis procedures.

4.4.1 Choice of Schools and Participants

Each participant in this study was selected through sampling. Punch (2001) points out the importance of being rigorous in sampling, especially as in this case it was not possible to study every secondary school headteacher in Botswana. First, secondary schools were grouped according to districts, and then each school was selected through purposive sampling from each district (see Map 1). As there are more than 2 secondary schools in each district, in order to select one, I wrote their names on a piece of paper, cut them up, placed them in a hat and picked one. Details on each of the schools are provided in Chapter 5.

On the basis of each school chosen above the headteachers of these secondary schools were asked to participate in the study. Once each of the head had agreed, I contacted the deputy-headteacher of each secondary school and explained to them the aims of the study and again asked if they would select 8

teachers in their schools; 4 females and 4 males, with a teaching experience ranging from 2 to over 10 years to participate in the study. Following the responses of the deputy-headteachers, I then contacted each selected teachers with an invitation for them to consent to participating in the study.

Nine secondary schools were initially selected from the 9 districts from a total number of 231 secondary schools nation-wide (see Table 4.1). However, after the study began, the ninth-school withdrew. As a result, only 8 secondary schools are shown in Table 4.1 below. Three representatives from the Ministry of Secondary Education were invited to describe and offer their views on the policy dimensions of leadership, management and training. These officials were the Permanent Secretary, because the office is responsible for policy formulation; the Deputy Director as a person responsible for policy implementation; and finally, the Training Officer as an employee responsible for training of headteachers in Botswana. The Permanent Secretary declined to be interviewed, stating that too many interviews have been given from her/his office. This resulted in two representatives from the Ministry of Education agreeing to be interviewed, as shown in Table 4.1. A summary of schools and participants is also shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Return Rates of Questionnaires and Complete Interviews

Number	Headteachers	Teachers	Ministry of Education Officials
Planned Interviews	9		3
Actual Interviews	8		2
Planned Questionnaires		72	
Distributed Questionnaires		64	
Returned questionnaires		50	

4.4.2 Permission and Access to Conduct Research

In planning any study, negotiating access is important for the research to be carried out successfully. Permission to conduct this research was sought from both the Government and selected secondary schools.

In April 2003, I sent a copy of the research proposal with the letter of request to carry out the study to the Office of the President in Botswana. In the letter I detailed the aims and objectives of the research, as required by the Botswana Government's regulations governing research permits. However, approval was not given immediately. By July 2003, after continuous enquiries as to when the permit would be issued, I was verbally instructed to continue with the study. The permit was finally sent to me when I returned to Bristol. I received it on the 25th April 2004 (see Appendix 4).

At the same time I also wrote letters of request and presented outlines of consent to participate in the study to 9 headteachers whose secondary schools

were randomly selected (see Appendices 5& 6). By the end of June 2003, 5 heads had replied and agreed to participate in the study. The other 4 heads were followed up while I was in Botswana and they too agreed to participate, even though one of them withdrew as a participant in the research three weeks from the end of the data collection. Both heads and Secondary Department officials were all informed during the first day of contact at their respective offices about the following; the aims of the study and its purpose, issues to be discussed, their freedom to choose the place for the interview, and that information they provide would be confidential (see Appendix 1).

4.4.3 Ethical Consideration

Ethics are moral principles of conduct. Research ethics are therefore the rules of what is acceptable and not acceptable in conducting research. According to Guthrie (1990), researchers need these rules when conducting research and dealing with people so that participants are protected. Sapsford and Abbott (1996:318) emphasise that in carrying out the research, caution must be taken that "the subjects of the research should not be harmed by it".

I took the following steps to ensure that issues were deal with ethically. I sought consent from all participants, I explained to participants the aims and purpose of the study and how they would participate. I was also careful during the interview not to force participants to elaborate on issues that were personal, such as their personal performance in school leadership and management, their knowledge and skills. I paid attention to what participants were saying without interfering, as well as ensuring that information provided

was used only for the purpose of this study. Finally, to ensure confidence in providing as truthful an account as possible, all headteachers, officials and teachers were assured that their identities would not be revealed to the wider public. In order to ensure this, headteachers who participated in this study are referred to in ways that anonymise their identities, for instance as Mr. Gilbert when discussing the heads in the context of their schools, or as SSHT 1 to 8 when looking at larger patterns; while the Ministry of Education represented by Secondary Department officials are referred to as MoET 1 to 2, and teachers as SST 1 to 50.

4.5 Research Methods

The following three methods were chosen for the data collection; semi-structured interviews, semi-open-ended questions and the analysis of training documents for heads in Botswana.

4.5.1 Semi-structured Interview 1: Headteachers

The interview is one method used if the intention is to obtain relevant responses (Fontana and Frey, 2000). I decided that semi-structured interviews with heads and representatives from the Secondary Department would result in better quality and more accurate responses than if I had used closed questions or survey of heads and Secondary Department officials (Fontana and Frey, 2000). I chose the semi-structured interview with pre-defined set of questions (Wiersma, 1986) that were derived from the main research questions. This gave the interviewees an opportunity to present their own

perspectives, opinions and experiences on secondary school leadership and management.

Headteachers are the main people who can and did provide greater insights into their tacit knowledge of leadership and management, their experiences of secondary school leadership and management, and whether the absence or presence of training made any difference to their leadership and management skills. Their views provided important information on the meaning of leadership and management training that heads attached to "their work, lives and experiences in school settings and the wider community" (Seidman, 1998:4).

When conducting the interviews, it should be noted that the relationship between the interviewees and myself as the interviewer varied and was dependent upon each individual. Schwandt (2000:79) emphasises the bond that develops by indicating that it is becoming common to accept an interview "as a form of discourse between two or more speakers and as a linguistic event in which the meaning of questions and responses are contextually, grounded and jointly constructed by an interviewer and respondent". Brenner et al (1985) take this point further by expanding on the relationship that takes place between the interviewer and the interviewees. They state that it:

> ...allows both parties to explore the meaning of the questions and answers involved. There is an implicit and explicit sharing and, or negotiation of understanding in the interview situation which is not so central and often present in other research procedures. Interviews enable an on the spot directness to the

> information and a general speed of response not obtainable in any other way (Brenner et al, 1985:3).

The interview for the heads revolved around the following broad research questions;

- How does the changing landscape of the education policy (*Revised National Education Policy,* 1994) and its demands for efficient leadership and management affect the roles of headteachers?
- What do heads perceive to be the effective leadership and management skills necessary for secondary school leadership?
- How do current secondary school headteachers in Botswana perceive leadership and management in relation to the Ministry of Education, the school and the community?
- What are the existing models of professional development/training for headteachers?
- How were you involved in the implementation of the RNPE (1994) and what was its impact in schools?
- What do the secondary school headteachers think would be an alternative approach in meeting heads' leadership and management training? (see the detailed questions in Appendix 1).

These questions created a continuum of discussion about the major changes emanating from the RNPE (1994); that is, changes in the curriculum, student intake, the availability of qualified teachers and facilities within the school. All these led heads to discuss their leadership and management skills as they related to their work and significant others. In the final conclusion of the dissertation, Heads' stories were then linked to the Secondary Department officials' position on the training policy of heads and how it was implemented.

As I moved from one secondary school to another, I telephoned each school head a day prior to the actual date scheduled for the interview and distribution of the questionnaires to ensure availability. Each interview with 6 of the heads lasted for an hour in the interviewee's office during school hours as they

opted to be interviewed then. The seventh head chose to be interviewed at a restaurant while having a cold drink after school. However, the eighth head decided to request the interview schedule and wrote his responses to the questions and returned them to me. All interviews except one were audio taped and notes were taken during the interview. All interviews were transcribed immediately after the interview.

On four occasions at four different secondary schools, heads' interviews were postponed while I was at the schools because the head had to attend to other emergency issues that needed their attention. I had to reschedule these interviews and spent another week at these schools. This was originally not planned, however, as (Vulliamy et al, 1990) observe, one of the characteristics of the qualitative research is that its design evolves such that the research process may modify both technique and approaches.

4.5.2 Semi-structured Interview 2: Secondary Department Officials

As noted earlier, only 2 members of the Secondary Department in the Ministry of Education in Botswana finally accepted being interviewed. While this situation is not ideal, and a greater number of interviews from Department officials would provide the basis for more robust conclusions, nonetheless, to omit this perspective entirely so late in the process of data collection would have diminished the study and its findings. The descriptions and interpretations of the Ministry officials are particularly crucial as they provide the overall policy direction and framework for training to heads. However, unlike heads, they do not have direct experience of whether provision of

leadership and management training help heads in their daily tasks. However, they can shed light on the Secondary Department's relationship with heads during the implementation of the 10 years of basic education and the change from the 3 to 2 years of senior secondary education (RNPE, 1994). They were also in a position to shed light on what kind of training was available to heads, and what the future plans might be for leadership and management training?

The content of the interview for headteachers and Secondary Department officials differed on two issues. First, the Secondary Department officials' interview schedule was modified after interviewing heads. The aim was to seek clarification on issues raised during the interview by headteachers especially on the following; inadequacy of the selection criteria, none systematic inductions and lack of leadership and management training. Second, the content of their questions revolved around the existence of a training policy, processes that are used for selecting headteachers for training, and if there were plans for future improvement.

The semi-structured interviews for officials provided me with an opportunity to question the Secondary Department officials. The interview was around the following broad questions;

- What criteria are used for appointing headteachers?
- When and how are headteachers trained on school leadership and management?
- How and when were recommendations 104 (e) and 112 (c) (RNPE, 1994) on training of heads on management and administration implemented?
- How has external assistance of the Commonwealth Secretariat programme (1993) assisted headteachers in developing leadership and management skills?

- How did the Ministry of Education involve headteachers during the implementation of the RNPE (1994)?
- Does the Ministry of Education have a leadership training policy for headteachers and how are headteachers selected for leadership and management training?
- What is the future plan to improve the current leadership and management training procedures? (see detailed questions in Appendix 2).

The central discussion was on what the employers (MoE) deemed to be the necessary school leadership and management skills and how heads could acquire them. The aim was to find out if the Secondary Department emphasised *experience* as a crucial aspect of acquiring school leadership and management skills, or *training* on relevant school leadership and management programmes, or both.

The interview has limitations. It is time consuming, and it is only possible to interview a small number given time and financial constraints. Furthermore, it is subjective on the part of the interviewees and has the risk of being biased (Wiersma, 1986; Punch, 2001). Cohen et al (2000:121) point out that subjectivity is when "participants express their feelings, fears, desires, and attitudes that are derived from their own experiences". In order to reduce biasness and subjectivity I used four different sources of data. Punch (2000:101) quotes Zeller (1997) that biasness can be reduced through "valid inference where there is no conflict between messages received as a result of the use of a variety of different methodological procedures". It is argued that such information would be reliable and valid. Furthermore, I used structured interviews with the same format and sequencing of words for each participant. I also piloted both the interview and survey questions (Cohen et al, 2000).

Punch (2000:98) describes reliability as "a central concept in measurement and it basically means consistency". The reliable information depends on the average of several similar responses on the same issue. In addition, validity is described as "the second central concept in measurement". Validity of information is also dependent on inference that is made from what is observed". These two concepts are referred to as psychometric characteristics of a measuring instrument and are commonly used in quantitative research.

However, in qualitative research reliability is a fit "between what researchers record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting that is being researched" (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:48). As a result of usage of more than one method and more data sources I was able to build up a more complex picture with different angles or perspectives on the same phenomena (Denzin, 1997, Miles and Huberman, 1994, Cohen et al, 2000). Such usage resulted in triangulation. Miles and Huberman (1994:268) define triangulation as a "way to get to the finding - by seeing or hearing multiple instances of it from different sources by using different methods".

4.5.3 The Semi-open-ended Questionnaire

The second data-gathering method was the survey for teachers based on semi-open-ended questions (see Appendix 3). This method was chosen because, unlike the close questions, these "invite honest, personal comments from respondents" (Punch 2001:255). The sample was made up of 8 teachers from each of the 8 secondary schools from which heads were selected. The total number of participating teachers was 64. The teachers' views are important

because they (teachers') are major actors in school activities and play some role in school leadership and management activities for example, as heads of Department (Mortimore, 1995).

Though questionnaires designed for teachers had clear instructions and were self-administered, I met teachers briefly in each school to explain the aims of the study, confidentiality and anonymity of information they will provide. The teachers also had 5 days to complete the questionnaires though they were encouraged to give them back to me directly while I was in the school. In addition, they were informed that in the event that they would not be able to return questionnaires to me, they were requested to submit them in a sealed enveloped to their respective deputy-heads who then posted them to me. The arrangement was to ensure the "anonymity and confidentiality" of the teachers (Cohen et al, 2000:61). A number of questionnaires were posted to me following my departure from the schools.

4.5.4 Training Documents Analysis

The third strategy used for data collection was the analysis of training documents for heads. Document meaning is of particular interest to qualitative researchers because the researcher can learn from interpreting the experiences contained in documents and relate them to the reported practical experiences by participants. Both Punch (2001) and May (2001) conclude that documentary analysis is valuable in enabling a comparison between what is planned in policy and programme terms, and what is experienced in practice.

In this study, the national and international documents on leadership training were examined. I sought and was given permission to use the Commonwealth Secretariat's professional development documents entitled 'Better Schools' modules (1993) from their office in London. The other documents, such as the Botswana Educational Action Management in Schools (1996), otherwise called "BEAMS", and the induction materials, were obtained from the Training Officer in the Ministry of Education in Botswana. I already had copies of the *Education for Kagisano* (1977), RNCE (1993), RNPE (1994) and the *Long Term Vision* 2016 (1997). These are publicly available documents (May, 2001). Most of the materials, except for the 'Better Schools' modules' (1993), were drawn from Botswana. The analysis of the training documents enabled me to place into context the training that has been provided to headteachers. The three methods discussed above provided triangulation.

4.6 Triangulation

Miles and Huberman (1994:268) define triangulation as a "way to get to the finding - by seeing or hearing multiple instances of it from different sources by using different methods". Data was collected from three sources namely, headteachers, Secondary Department officials as representative of the Ministry of Education and teachers. The three methods which were used are; interviews, survey questions and document analysis. Cohen and Manion (1994) agree with Miles and Huberman's views above. In addition, Cohen et al (2000:112) point out that triangulation "... attempts or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more

than one stand point" for instance, triangulation is evident in an interpretive research when the outcomes of a survey correspond to those of the interview of the same phenomena. Cohen et al (2000) conclude that this will result in a researcher being confident about the findings. The emphasis is that triangulation is useful in order to avoid exclusive reliance on one method, which may increase the chance of biasness on the part of the participants as they relate their experiences. Triangulation can also help to ensure validity and reliability of the data provided by participants.

Validity is when "the interpretation we make from our measures are defensible by data" (Punch, 2000: 100) and reliability is, consistency of results and therefore having a smaller error in measurement and a larger correct score" (Punch, 200:98). It is important nonetheless to note that the test of reliability in qualitative approaches cannot be based on identical reproduction of findings. This is because both time and context will often mean that the subject might provide slightly different versions or descriptions. This is not to suggest that the subject is being untruthful. Rather, it is to recognise the complexity of qualitative social sciences (Dezin, 1997; Cohen et al, 2000).

4.7 Piloting

A pilot study was conducted in order to "check the clarity of both the interview and the questionnaire items, instructions, layout, to eliminate ambiguities or difficult wording, to gain feedback on the type of questions and their forms as well as their length" (Cohen et al, 2000:260).

After arrival in Botswana I selected 3 secondary schools whose headteachers and teachers had agreed to assist in piloting the study interviews and questionnaires, and were near where I was staying. One of the Assistant Training officers at the Ministry of Education was also interviewed as a piloting exercise. I was uncertain if piloting and carrying out of the research would be possible as I had scheduled because there was a looming "national teachers' strike" (*Mmeg*i, September 2002:1). Teachers had claimed "their conditions of service were not improved in relation to the new workload" (*Mmegi*, 2003:2). However, piloting and data collection went as scheduled as the strike was averted by the submission of the Presidential Commission's report on the salary increase of civil servants (including teachers) (*Mmegi*, 2003).

In addition, piloting was part of the process of ensuring validity and reliability. I wanted to test the questions before I use them in the case study to overcome possible problems of validity and reliability, that is, to find out if participants would respond in the same way to questions under the same circumstances. My assumption is that these participants may be able to give me similar answer at different times but same circumstances. This became possible because participants understood the tasks and the questions and that they had no reason to lie and that they felt relatively comfortable in their respective school's environments. The consistency of data created internal validity.

In light of the discussions and comments made by those who participated in the piloting, I rephrased the questions and made them more specific, while the interview schedule was also rephrased, made more specific, and shortened in line with the comments made. The changes were necessary for the reliability of data and to improve understanding of the questions by participants (Wiersma, 1986; Creswell, 1994, Cohen et al, 2000).

The main period of data collection lasted for 12 weeks. The initial plan of spending a week in each of the 8 secondary schools had to be revised due to postponement of interviews by 4 headteachers. As a result of those heads' postponement I had to spend 2 weeks at their respective schools while one week was spent in each of the other 4 secondary schools.

4.8 Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis is the process of searching and arranging interview transcripts, answers from the survey, and information from documents that have been accumulated to increase understanding of what is being researched (Boulton & Hammersley, 1996). This procedure enables the researcher to present what she/he has discovered to others. This process involved working with data, organising it, searching for similar topics, themes, discovering of what is important and what has to be learnt and selecting what the researcher has to report (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, 1998).

The amount of interview data collected was voluminous despite there being only 8 headteachers and 2 representatives from the Secondary Department

who were interviewed. I adopted Miles and Huberman (1994:4) analysis model referred to by Punch (2001: 203) which is based on the following three components; data reduction, data display and drawing and verifying conclusions.

First, data was analysed for each school using the interview data from the headteacher and the survey data from the teachers as well as the demographic and contextual information for each school. This enabled me to develop a more 'holistic' account of each school's leadership skills (Cohen et al, 2000) and is reported in Chapter 7. Next I aggregated the interview data from headteachers to give me a sense of how the heads in the study, as a group, viewed leadership and management. In the same way the Secondary Department officials' interviews were treated as individual views but were then combined to form Secondary Department officials' views.

In analysing the views of teachers from each of the case study schools, I combined all teachers responses to the questionnaires and then compared them, looking for patterns of similarity and difference. I also built up a school-based picture of teachers' views, linking these to the views of the head and the contextual data on the school. The purpose here of this dual approach is to develop insights into leadership in context, and leadership amongst heads as a shared experience.

The data consisted of audiotapes and notes, and in analysing these the following process was used; audiotapes were listened to, transcriptions were

read and re-read many times, and then data were categorised according to concepts and themes raised from responses by participants. This is similar to Creswell's (1994:114) argument that the process of analysis of qualitative data is one of "reduction and interpretation". In analysing the data from the three different sources,

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the importance of choosing a methodology that enables a complex and insightful view of secondary school leadership and management training in Botswana. The interpretive approach enabled me to explore in detail the realities of school leadership and management as a result of the implementation of the RNPE (1994). The following chapter reports on the research findings from headteachers.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS FROM HEADTEACHERS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter now begins the presentation of the research data. In order to present a picture of the specific contexts in which heads work, and engage in leadership and management practices, I want to begin by specifying some brief detail on the context of the school before moving on to present the findings from the interview data with heads.

5.1. Heads in Context

Eight schools agreed to participate in this research study. Each school is described below, along with some detail regarding the head and their experiences regarding school leadership and management. In the interviews I asked heads to draw upon their total experience as a head; in a number of cases this meant that the head drew upon their experience of several schools. Heads will be referred to in this chapter sometimes by name/acronym with their reference code in brackets (for instance as in Mr Gilbert [SSHT1]), and sometime when using aggregated data by their coding reference (as in [SSHT1]).

Mr Gilbert (SSHT1) is the headteacher at Thari Senior Secondary School and has a B.A degree and 10 years of school leadership experience within a number of secondary schools. It could be argued that Mr Gilbert has a reasonable amount of experience in leading and managing a secondary school.

He was involved in leading schools during the period of the RNPE policy reforms. Thari Senior Secondary School is located in a major village in the Chobe district known for its tourist attractions–915 kilometres from Gaborone. As a result, students who attend the school are familiar with modern amenities like the Internet, while families' incomes are boosted by the tourism. Thari is a relatively large school with a student population in 2003 of 1623, 94 qualified teachers and none unqualified. In 2003 it had a national pass rate of 73 per cent – which is considered 'good'.

Mr Boitshepo (SSHT2) is the headteacher of Shima Community Junior Secondary School; he has B.A, Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) and reading for master's degree, with 7 years of school leadership experience. Like Mr Gilbert, it could be said that Mr Boitshepo has a 'good' experience of being a school leader and manager. Shima Community Junior Secondary School is located in relatively affluent area of Central district, and is 433 kilometres away from the capital city - Gaborone. It is a medium sized school with a student enrolment of 519, with 32 qualified teachers and one unqualified in 2003. Like Thari Senior Secondary School its national pass rate in 2003 was 75 per cent.

Ms Malebo (SSHT3) is the head of Wabobedi Community Junior Secondary School. Community Junior Secondary Schools are schools that operate in a closer partnership with the community largely as the students come from within the community (as opposed to the senior secondary schools above where students may come from villages within the region). Ms Malebo has

Diploma in Secondary Education (DSE) and 15 years of school leadership experience – this experience has been acquired from a number of schools. The school is located in a major village in the Kweneng district not far from the capital city (51 kilometres). In contrast to the previous two schools, Wabobedi Community Junior Secondary School is located in a community where not all parents are working. As a result there are fewer resources in the community. This limits participation and contributions to the school. Its student's enrolment was 552 in 2003, with 34 qualified teachers and 7 unqualified ones. Its national pass rate for 2003 was 59 per cent – much lower than the pervious two schools.

Ms Lesego (SSHT4) is head of Motlhanka Community Junior Secondary School; she has B.Ed degree and reading for master's degree with 6 years of school leadership experience. Like Mr Gilbert it could be said that Ms Lesego has some experience of school leadership. This is a medium sized school and is located in the capital city Gaborone. Families who send their children to this school are likely to be working in a range of professional and service jobs. Motlhanka's student's enrolment was 677 in 2003 with 36 qualified and 2 unqualified teachers. Its national pass rate in 2003 was 74 per cent.

Ms Tshegofatso (SSHT5) is a head of Tuelo Community Junior Secondary School; she has B.Ed degree and 6 years of school leadership experience. Similarly, it could be said that Ms Tshegofatso has a developing school leadership profile, like Mr Gilbert, Mr Boitshepo and Ms Lesego. Tuelo Community Junior Secondary School is located in a major village in the

Kgatleng district which is 44 kilometres from Gaborone. It had a student population of 743, with 43 qualified teachers and one unqualified. Its national pass rate in 2003 was 75 per cent. Its profile is similar to Motlhanka Community Junior Secondary School above.

Mr One (SSHT6) is a head of Waboraro Community Secondary school; he has the following qualifications; B.A degree, Post Graduate Diploma in Education and Master of Science (school management) with 6 years of school leadership. Mr One, too, could be said has a developing headship profile. Waboraro Community Secondary School is located in a town in the Gantsi district which is a considerable distance from Gaborone - 712 kilometres. The school itself has boarding facilities for the students and all attendees board. Most students who attend the school do not come from the same district; rather, they come from around the region. It is a large school; in 2003 student's enrolment was 1151, with 73 qualified and 2 unqualified teachers. It has a relatively good pass rate of 70 per cent in 2003.

Mr Nkhutleng (SSHT7) is the head of Mme Community Junior Secondary School – with boarding facilities that are available to some of the students. He has a B.A degree and Certificate in Concurrent Education (CCE) with 20 years of school leadership experience. Mme Community Secondary School is located in a medium size village in the Kgalagadi district which is 478 kilometres from Gaborone. Families have limited resources in this community, which in turn limits their participation in the school activities. Its student's population was 514 with 33 qualified and 3 unqualified teachers. Its

national pass rate was 61 per cent – lower than a number of the schools noted above.

Mr Mokwadi (SSHT8) is the head of Sejang Community Junior Secondary School; he has a B.Ed. degree and 11 years of school leadership experience. Like Mr Gilbert, he too could be said he has a reasonably lengthy experience of headship. Sejang community secondary school is located in a medium size village in the Southern district 58 kilometres from Gaborone. Most parents are employed and they participate in a range of school activities. Its student's population was 560 in 2003 with 32 qualified and 4 unqualified teachers. Its national pass rate was 67 per cent in 2003.

In combination, these schools represent a range of types of school, school size, with varying levels of experience amongst the school heads. What stands out is that schools that are located in communities that are engaged in school activities, and where families are more likely to be employed in professional, administrative and other kinds of service work are more likely to have higher pass rates in exception of Sejang Community Junior Secondary School. These different schools present different kinds of organisational challenges to school heads.

5.2 Extracting Themes from the Data

The data drawn from their interviews with Heads (see Appendix 1) is presented through major themes below. These are; heads' academic qualifications and their schools' profile, critical view on the criteria for

appointment, heads' explanation on their tasks, heads' understanding of leadership, heads' reflection on their early years of school leadership, nature of induction, heads qualification upgrading or training, support materials, support from regional offices, heads' relationship with the Ministry of Education and implementation of RNPE (1994), implementation experiences, heads and teachers interaction, heads' relation with the community. The analysis is based on a summary of each individual head's knowledge and experiences, as described during the interviews and reported here as summaries of heads' views. In order to understand heads' views it is important to relate them to both the head's academic qualifications and each school's profiles.

Table 5.1 below is a summary of location, heads' qualifications, heads' years of experience in school leadership and management, number of qualified and unqualified teachers, students' enrolment and pass rate as discussed above.

Table 5.1: Heads' Academic Qualifications and Their Schools' Profiles

School	Location	Heads' qualifications	Heads' years of experience	No of qualified teachers	No of unqualified teachers	Students' enrolment	Pass rate
Thari SSS	Major Village	B.A	10	94	0	1623	73
Shima CJSS	City	B.A, PGDE, Studying for M.Ed	7	32	1	519	75
Wabobedi CJSS	Major Village	Diploma in Secondary Education	15	34	7	552	59
Motlhanka CJSS	Capital City	B.Ed, studying for M.Ed	6	36	2	677	74
Tuelo CJSS	Major Village	B.Ed	6	43	1	743	75
Waborarao SSS	Town	B.A, PGDE, MSc	6	73	2	1151	70
Mme CJSS	Medium Village	B.A., CCE	20	33	3	514	61
Sejang CJSS	Major Village	B.Ed	11	32	4	560	67

Key: SSS – senior secondary school
CJSS – community junior secondary school

Table 5.1 reveals that there are differences in the heads' academic qualifications and schools' profiles above. The first difference is that heads with over 10 years of headship experience are not trained, for instance, heads in school Wabobedi, Mme, and Sejang. The second, is that schools, Wabobedi, Mme and Sejang have a high rate of untrained teachers for example Wabobedi Community Junior Secondary School has 7 untrained teachers. The third is that schools Wabobedi, Mme and Sejang have a lower pass rate on the national examinations table. These factors are likely to affect school heads, especially as students, teachers, parents and the Ministry of Education tend to emphasize pass rates as one of the factors which reflect heads' leadership and management abilities. I too agree that pass rates are important because they are measurable indicators. In addition, the -0.85 correlation between pass rates and untrained teachers suggests that the

number of untrained teachers may have more impact on pass rates than heads. However, heads are responsible for managing this difficult situation and providing 'quality' education.

5.3 Critical View on the Criteria for Appointment

All heads indicate that they applied for advertised vacancies and were selected on the basis of the criteria indicated in the advertisement. But heads are critical of the criteria used. Verbatim examples of what heads say are used in this discussion to clarify and emphasise headteachers' knowledge and experiences. The biographical information provided by heads during the interviews (indicated in Table 5.1 above) show that all the heads are qualified teachers; 1 has Diploma in Secondary Education, 7 have Bachelor's degrees and 2 have additional Post Graduate Diploma in Education, while 1 has Concurrent Certificate in Education. Added to this, two of the heads are reading for a Master of Education in school management, while 1 has completed a Master of Science degree in school management. All of these headteachers are experienced teachers who have taught for over 10 years before being appointed to headship positions.

They all indicate that they know the required criteria for appointment to headship; a diploma or degree with 3 years of deputy headship experience.

They strongly think that the criteria are unsatisfactory. SSHT 2 states that:

> *...the criteria to appoint deputy headteachers of junior secondary schools to lead senior secondary schools should be changed. This is not good as this is a great leap.*

Both SSHT 1 and SSHT 7 agree with this view. Whether these heads are running larger or smaller schools, it seems all agree with each other that the criteria need to change.

Although all these heads are qualified teachers, most of them, except one, argue that they are not trained in school leadership and management. Heads feel that the criteria used for appointing them are not satisfactory, as they do not take into account the tasks heads are required to do. This point is further emphasised by SSHT 4 who runs a relatively large school who thinks that the *criteria of 3 years as deputy without looking at the quality of performance and leadership skills by the deputy is not sufficient*. Clearly it also matters what kind of experiences deputies have had: school size, school type; levels of resource and participation by parents will all shape the nature of the school and generate different kinds of management and leadership opportunities. This view is supported by the other 4 headteachers. The statements by SSHT 4 show discontentment amongst heads regarding the criteria used in their appointments. As SHHT 5, who runs a slightly bigger school than SSHT 4 observes, in addition to the criteria being insufficient, they are also not strictly adhered to as *some teachers are appointed on the criteria best known by the appointing body*. Heads observations indicate two things: first that the criteria used are insufficient and second, they are not adhered to.

Data from all the 8 heads indicate that the Ministry of Education needs to introduce a compulsory pre-induction course which should be taken by all

teachers who intend to apply for headship, and a pre-induction course might give heads some basic knowledge and skills on leadership and management.

5.4 Heads' Explanations of Their Tasks

The interview began by asking heads to talk about their work and the tasks that they were engaged in. Despite the different kinds of schools (size, geographical location etc) all heads replied indicating that they had many tasks. I have divided tasks that heads have mentioned into three categories as follows; traditional headship tasks, human relations and managerial tasks. The traditional heads' tasks mentioned are; supervising teaching and learning, ensuring that the curriculum changes are implemented, extra curricular activities are carried out, discipline and timetabling. These require heads to ensure that teaching and learning take place and that the prescribed curriculum is implemented in accordance with the regulations laid down by the Ministry of Education. It is also the duty of the head to ensure that staff members are allocated responsibilities and that staff carry these out. In addition, that there is the responsibility for discipline within the school as well as regulations that are clearly understood by all. The heads' descriptions in this study indicate that they enjoy these tasks. This might be because they feel that they have the skills and experience acquired from teaching to perform them.

The second category - human relations tasks, includes: student and staff welfare, staff development, creating a team, staff control, staff appraisal, public and human relations, communications with staff, students and parents,

motivating teachers, conducting meetings and dealing with Ministries of Education and Finance officials. Heads' descriptions show that these are the areas that they find difficult to deal with, especially motivating teachers as a consequence of the constrained relationship between teachers and the Ministry of Education.

The third task area is managerial responsibilities. Most heads think that the following tasks require them to have some specific organisational and management knowledge: developing vision and mission statements, budgeting, planning, maintenance and supervision of building projects. Heads further indicate that financial matters require them to be constantly in contact with the Bursar to ensure that distribution and spending of funds are carried out as per planned. But they also point out their inability to do this effectively. As SHHT 8 who is a head of a medium size community junior secondary school with 11 years experience recalls, *how can I read a balance sheet when I don't understand the credit and debit concepts*. Heads explain that they have limited knowledge on these tasks because they are not trained and consequently they expressed feelings of frustration. The indication is that experience of 11 years has not provided SSHT 8 with sufficient skills to deal with complex financial issues that are associated with the devolution of responsibilities, such as building.

Heads were asked to explain why they applied for headship and their responses vary. However, the general consensus amongst heads indicates that most applied for these posts because they thought they could contribute to

school development (SSHT 2). Three heads were motivated by personal ambition and the following statement summarises their views: *I thought I had the potential to lead and I can contribute to school development in my country* (SSHT 4 [has a B.Ed and reading for master's degree and 6 years of school leadership experience], SSHT5 [has a B.Ed degree and 6 years school leadership experience], and SSHT 8 [has B.Ed and 11 years of school leadership experience]). Furthermore, 2 of the heads made this their career choice as a result of being influenced by family members who had been headteachers before (SSHT 3[has a Diploma in Secondary School and 15 years of school leadership experience, SSHT 1 [has a B.A and 10 years of school leadership experience). Only one headteacher chose headship because the *job pays well* (SSHT 7[has a B.A and Certificate in Concurrent Education and 20 years of school leadership]). What is interesting is that their different levels of qualification are not necessarily a reflection of their motivation to become a head.

5.5 Personal Understanding of Leadership

The heads were requested to explain leadership from three vantage points. First, before they became heads, during their period of their headship, and after training. In relation to the first vantage point the answers of the 6 heads agree with the following statement made by one of the heads: *I would not say I had prior knowledge but have associated leadership with leaders that I had observed before I became one* (SSHT 1, SHHT2, SSHT 3, SSHT4, SSHT 5, SHHT 7). This description is given by heads whose experience range from 6 to 20 years of experience. Two heads state that at that time they thought

leadership was *mainly to tell others what to do* (SSHT 6, SSHT 8). These heads experiences are 6 and 11 years.

In relation to the second vantage point, once appointed, several heads explain leadership as, *the ability to direct or assist others on what needs to be done* (SSHT 7[has B.A and CCE, with 20 years of headship experience], SSHT 3 [has a Diploma in Secondary Education and 15 years of headship experience, SHHT 8 [has a B.Ed and 11 years of headship experience], SHHT 1 [has a B.A and 10 years of headship experience). Experience then does influence views of leadership, however it is difficult to determine whether this alters significantly with the length of experience.

Only three heads described their understanding of leadership after training. SSHT 6 describe leadership as; *the ability of someone to be able to guide other people to work towards the same goal and to have skills to understand things widely*. This is a more extensive description than the previous ones. The three heads (SSHT 2 [has B.A, PGDE and reading for master's degree], SSHT 4 [has B.Ed and reading for master's degree] and SSHT 6 [has B.A, PGDE and MSc) explain that their understanding of leadership has changed due to their exposure of being leaders and some from their training and further education.

Heads were asked to explain whether effective leadership could contribute to the provision of 'quality' education. Data from heads' responses support the view that effective leadership can contribute to provision of 'quality'

education. One head summarises others' views by pointing out that, *I think there is a link, and that is why I believe that quality education cannot be based on teachers' better qualifications and provision of adequate teaching and learning resources only without including the quality of leadership as part of the crucial mix to provision of quality education* SHHT 1(has a B.A and 10 years of headship experience). This comment by SSHT 1 is likely valid; the majority of teachers are trained – indeed there are only 20 untrained teachers from the total of 373 teachers as compared to 3 from 8 heads (see Table 5.1). It could be argued that understanding of leadership by most heads above show that the meaning of leadership is context based and that there are certain values related to it.

5.6 Heads' Reflections on Their Early Years of School Leadership

The 8 heads' experiences of school leadership during their first years are summed up by one head's statement that they were thrown in at 'the deep end' and they did not feel they had the necessary skills to be headteachers. Heads agree that they experienced deficiency in skills and knowledge, especially in financial matters. This is captured by SSHT 8 {has a B.Ed and 11 years of experience) statement that, *I was expected to take control of the whole school, to budget, negotiate with the Ministry of Education on projects and so forth yet I was not prepared to do these tasks. This was a trial and error arrangement and to learn on the job was very difficult.* SSHT 2 (has a B.A, PGDE and reading for master's degree) also notes that:

> *I did not feel that I had the necessary skills to be a headteacher but I felt that I had the potential.*

The statements above indicate that despite these two heads' qualifications and experience did not provide heads with enough knowledge and skills to competently deal with financial matters.

In taking on school leadership, heads indicate that they were aware that they were expected to perform tasks to satisfy the expectations of teachers and students within the school, the Ministry of Education, and the community. However, due to the lack of multiple skills, they experienced a great deal of pressure in trying to meet these expectations.

In order to improve their leadership and management abilities, heads reported resorting to using their own peer based networks especially those with experience. One head states, *I relied heavily on my peers who have been in the field before me* (SSHT 2 [has a B.A, PGDE, reading for master's degree and has 7 years of headship experience). Reliance on peers may be an indication of the lack of heads' preparation for the role by the Secondary Department.

5.7 The Nature of Heads' Inductions

Data from heads indicate that they have different experiences of induction. For instance, two heads were inducted within a month after being appointed while the rest were inducted within the period of 6 to 24 months. One head was inducted after 2 years (SSHT 5). She/he recalls that; *I was inducted in the year 2002 after 2 years of being a head.* All heads agree that if induction

takes place 24 months after being in post, then it is too long- beyond the point that is valuable to them fitting into the job and finding their leadership feet.

With no induction, most heads agree that they learnt how to deal with budgets, teacher's lack of accommodation, and lack of facilities for new subjects, overcrowding and students' indiscipline and staff appraisal on the job. Most heads say that they are unhappy with the current practice and that they would appreciate if induction takes place before assuming duty or immediately after appointment, and that induction training should last longer than one week.

Heads indicate that they are not satisfied with the content of the induction materials. Furthermore, interview data suggests that different topics were presented with some heads being inducted on financial and resource management and others not. Evidence for this was also contained in the document entitled Resource Management 2000 (held at the Grand Palm, Gaborone, 2000). Heads who attended this induction think that it would have been better if the induction had included areas of their need, such as budget preparation, leadership, professional ethics, supervision of staff, students' discipline and dealing with problem teachers (SSHT 5). The Head who attended this induction also emphasised that the induction was too short (it lasted for a week) and did not cover areas that she felt were key headship tasks.

The other group of heads indicate that the content of their induction materials focused on time management and timetabling. However, I was unable to view a copy of this material to determine the validity of their claim. The difference in the content of the induction materials implies that there is no core material or coverage of key ideas. However, this difference is not based on heads' training needs assessment. Therefore, since other heads may lack knowledge on issues which were not discussed during their induction, heads have devised a way of benefiting from each other's knowledge through establishing peer networks. One head commented that she/he would not be emphasizing the importance of networking as she/he does if all heads were adequately inducted before and after appointment.

5.8 Heads: Qualification Upgrading or Leadership Training

It was found out that in order to improve heads' knowledge and skills on leadership and management heads were sent application forms by the Secondary Department to apply for training and further education. Heads say they completed these forms returned them to the Secondary Department for consideration on a yearly basis. The application form has become a tool for selection and some heads who have fewer years of experience than others have been sent for training and further education. Consequently, heads question the criterion used, as it seems to flout the stated ones as:

> 2 years or more at post, confirmation in the post, experience at the present level, values and relevance of the proposed qualification to the education service, quality of personal statement, job performance and contribution to the whole education service and professional conduct (TR Form 1, 2003: 1).

Heads views and concerns are consistent with information contained in Table 5.1 which shows that heads with 15 or even 20 years of school leadership experience have not yet been sent for training and or further education in accordance with the above criteria. One head states that:

> *I started to be head many years ago, I was not trained nor inducted. I was frustrated and I am still frustrated* (SSHT 3[has Diploma in Secondary Education and 15 years of school leadership experience).

This statement is a clear voice of dissatisfaction and frustration with the way the Secondary Department in the Ministry of Education deals with the training of heads which is not systematic. The major concern for heads is that if heads with shorter service are sent for training and further education before those who have longer service, then the question is; what are the criteria for selection? The lack of transparency and systematic procedures in selecting candidates appears to cause considerable confusion and concern amongst heads. Overall, heads emphasise that training is essential as it can provide them with key knowledge and skills necessary for them to perform their leadership and management tasks effectively. This view is expressed by one of the heads that, *after training one feels competent and can be able to provide leadership and management that will help not only me but teachers too, to grow in other areas of school leadership* (SHHT 7 [has B.A, CCE and 20 years of school leadership experience]). Most heads agree that training is better than experience because, it opens new ways of thinking (theoretical and practical) which can be used immediately or in the future.

Interview data indicates that most heads also think that training could improve their self-confidence. One head states: *I lack confidence in dealing with*

school issues because I have no training in school leadership and the only difference between senior teachers and me is the headship experience I have acquired for the past 20 years (SSHT 7) The key point for this head, who has more than 20 years of school leadership and management experience is that experience does not (at least in his own mind) make up for the confidence that might come with training

Heads who have had the opportunity to experience leadership/management training are happy with the Secondary Department decisions regarding training and further education. However, those who are still waiting for training are not.

I drew a comparison of experiences between SSHT 3 (has a Diploma in Secondary Education and 15 years of headship experience) and SSHT 6 (has B.A, PGDE and MSc with 7 years of headship experience) to clarify the processes of selection and practice of training of heads. First, SSHT 3 was not inducted before and after appointment. In addition, she/he has not been given an opportunity to upgrade her diploma qualification to degree level even though SSHT 3 has been a headteacher for 15 years. Furthermore, SSHT 3 feels that the lack of upgrading of her qualification and attendance of short courses has frustrated her/him. SSHT 3 states; *I am one of the Diploma holders, and most of my teachers have bachelors' degrees. I lack confidence in discussing some academic and administrative issues with teachers and this is frustrating and causing me a lot of stress.* It can be argued that SSHT 3 does not feel adequately equipped for her headship role. Survey data gathered

from the teachers in SSHT 3's school also suggests that SSHT 3 lacks self-confidence and this might have negatively affected her leadership in the school. She concludes that, *because I hold a diploma and most teachers have bachelor's degrees I think they know most of the things that I do not know. I therefore lack confidence sometimes to convince them to carry out my vision of improving our school especially when they do not agree. Sometimes their comments indicate that I have limited knowledge. As a result I enjoy nothing about being a headteacher* (SSHT 3).

Unlike SHHT 3, SSHT 6 was inducted for 3 weeks prior to taking up leadership role and later sent to attend short courses at the Institute of Development Management in Gaborone. Furthermore, the first time SHHT 6 submitted the application forms, he was sent to read for a Master's degree in school management, even though he had six years of school leadership experience - far less than SSHT 3 who had 15 years or SSHT 7 with 20 years. SSHT 6 says; *I feel competent in doing my work because I have the knowledge*. Furthermore, SSHT 6 also thinks the Training Office is competent in carrying out its responsibility of inducting and training heads. SSHT 6's noted; *I have attended three short courses at IDM and lately I have attended a course on how to deal with students' whose parents have HIV/AIDS. I have also been sent to read for masters' degree the first time I applied and I think the Training Office is efficient*. This headteacher's profile is different from the others interviewed, and it would be interesting to investigate further why it is that he has been able to access many more opportunities much more rapidly

than the other heads. Distance (that is close proximity) from Gaborone does not explain this, as the school is located a considerable distance away.

The implications of SSHT 3 and SSHT 6 statements above are that leadership confidence can be boosted by academic qualifications because they are able to provide an individual with broader knowledge, social acknowledgement and status. Acceptance by others also boosts ones' confidence and self-esteem.

The picture that emerges from these descriptions and discussions is that the Training Office does not carry out any training needs assessment before selecting heads for training. Heads who are more likely to benefit from training are left out. Overall, heads think their needs for training have been significantly increased by the implementation of the RNPE (1994), which introduced new tasks that demand different kinds of knowledge and abilities in leading and managing their schools. As a result, heads think that the support from Regional offices needs to be strengthened.

5.9 Heads' Support Materials

All heads indicate that their schools have been supplied with two types of information packs to support their headship. The first is the *Botswana Educational Action Management in Schools* (1996), or what is referred to as 'BEAMS'. BEAMS is a programme of information leaflets developed by the Ministry of Education in conjunction with the Overseas Development Agency (ODA) to assist headteachers to understand issues that surround school leadership. The content of these information materials includes: management issues, management needs analysis, good practice guide, vision building,

mission statements, aims and objects of schools, leadership and curriculum leadership (BEAMS, 1996). This was also an attempt by the Ministry to ensure greater school effectiveness.

The second kind of material is the 'Better Schools' modules' (1993) produced by the *Commonwealth Secretariat* for headteachers in Africa to improve their leadership skills. All the 8 heads in this study state that copies of these materials are available in their schools however, aside from 2 interviewees who said they have used them as references, the rest have not read them. One head says, *I have read them but not thoroughly* (SSHT 4, who has B.Ed and 6 years of experience).

At one level it is a surprise that heads have not read these –given the importance attached to these materials by the Secondary Department. However, at another it is not, as heads state that they lack time to do so, given all of their other tasks. The concern that arises from this situation is that there is no monitoring by the Secondary Department on whether heads use the support materials provided and, if they don't, how they might be encouraged. If the Training Office officials were able to assess and assist heads, they may have found that simply providing reading material is not sufficient to improve heads' knowledge. Reading depends on factors such as time and context.

5. 10 Support from Regional Offices

The Majority of heads indicate that they used to call Regional offices or the Ministry of Education for assistance however, often they received very

unhelpful answers such as; *I do not run your school* (SSHT 2). Four of the interviewees cite similar experiences. In addition, heads point out that sometimes they were unsuccessful in being able to speak to any officers. They indicate that the explanation from Regional offices was that the Regional offices were experiencing problems of under staffing.

5.11 Heads Relationship with the Ministry of Education and Implementation of RNPE (1994)

The heads describe their relationship with the Ministry of Education as primarily top-down because the educational structure is based on a bureaucratic model. Heads indicate that they do not participate on major educational issues; this was also the case in relation to policies like the RNPE (1994). One head says that he learnt some heads were invited to a headteachers' conference where they were informed about the decisions taken to implement the RNPE (1994) at the beginning of 1996. A similar statement from three heads is that they *received a savingram that it will be implemented in January* (SSHT 7). This is a loss given the considerable experience of many of the heads. As a result, heads were not prepared for the implementation of the RNPE (1994) and the issues that arose.

Interview data suggested that heads encountered leadership and management problems. As one head notes regarding taking on new curricular responsibilities; *I have reported to both the Head Office and the Regional Office that we have the physical education equipment but we have no storeroom to keep them. To date, I have not been replied to or advised on what to do* (SSHT 4). Heads view the RNPE (1994) as an ambitious

educational project, however the effects on schools – of a dramatic increase in students' numbers and the lack of additional classrooms, were not considered by the Ministry of Education as crucial. Nonetheless, these issues became realities, which confronted heads and place them under considerable amount of pressure.

5.12 RNPE (1994) Implementation Experiences

Heads reported encountering different problems during the implementation of the RNPE (1994), the first being to understand the new curriculum. One head with considerable experience as a head recalls; *it was not clear from the Ministry of Education which subjects were core and which were to be piloted* (SSHT 7). For example, the Design and Technology subject was specified as a core subject yet there were no facilities to accommodate all the students to do it. Two heads say that the, *lack of consultation by policy designers has resulted in the Ministry of Education doing abstract plans, which are factually incorrect* (SSHT 2, SSHT 4). Added to this, the increase in student numbers resulted in shortages of classrooms which led in turn to an increase in the number of pupils in the classroom by more than 25% - from 30 to 38 or even 40. Some heads state that the result of this was an increase in the tension between them and teachers because teachers do not want to teach crowded students. Third, there was lack of qualified teachers. This resulted in some heads recommending to the Ministry to employ unqualified persons for employment to teach temporarily some of the new subjects. One head argues that because untrained teachers teach some of the new subjects, students doing these subjects do not pay much attention to them. Fourth, there was

insufficient accommodation for teachers and it is reported that this caused lack of morale amongst teachers when they were sharing accommodation. However, despite heads' limited leadership and management skills the Secondary Department made them accountable. One headteacher indicates that when the implementation process did not go according to the Ministry's expectations, heads were seen as incompetent because they were regarded as failing to carry out their tasks accordingly. Another head indicate that heads were punished for not complying with the Ministry of Education procedures--*we were reprimanded* (SSSHT 7). The Ministry of Education were using a competency approach in these cases yet heads are not trained for the job. Fifth, the data show that both heads and teachers had been affected by the implementation; it increased teachers' workload and yet their working conditions did not improved in accordance with new demands of the RNPE (1994). Heads state that this has affected the general school morale. The outcome is that some heads in this study reported feeling incompetent and sometimes frustrated when dealing with school issues.

Data from heads indicate that the interaction between them and teachers during the implementation period was difficult especially when they [heads] were to inform teachers about unpopular decisions taken by the Ministry of Education. Three examples were cited; for instance, changes in the curriculum, selecting students into class groups according to their academic ability and teachers' strike. Heads indicate that the curriculum is diverse and there is a need to consult teachers as to how to address shortages in the number of available classroom and in the nature of teaching facilities,

especially where optional subjects have been made core subjects. Heads also note that some teachers are not happy with their subjects being changed to core subjects because it meant that students would have to do those subjects yet there were no facilities and no increase in teachers' numbers for the selected subjects.

One head also recalls the question asked by teachers as; *how are we supposed to teach the whole 18 streams when we have been teaching only 4* (SSHT 8 [has a B.Ed with 11 years of school leadership experience). Another head recalls the feelings of frustration and anger from teachers when they thought they were being asked to do the impossible.

In addition, it was found out that the policy emphasised that classrooms be made up of mixed ability students. This meant that students should not be separated into classes according to their academic ability, as reflected by their Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) results. Heads concluded that some teachers did not like the new changes because not only had class numbers increased by up to 25% - from 30 to 38 but many teachers do not have the skills to teach mixed ability students. Three heads think the problem of lack of multiple skills in teaching methods comes from teachers' initial training on teaching methods.

Heads state that a major challenge to their leadership and management skills was the teachers' national strike in September 2002 and 2003. Heads state they were officially informed about it by the Secondary Department, however

they were also instructed by the same not to send students home during that period. Headteachers state their concern with the way the Secondary Department handled this sensitive issue, at the same time noting that there were no preparations from the Ministry, while the school was not allowed to return students home. One head sums up the heads general agreement; *it was almost impossible to carry out the normal duties* as *we were left to device ways of keeping students in the school and we find it very hard to understand and live with such decisions* (SSHT 4).

Heads state one of the outcomes of the strike was that heads had to report striking teachers to the Ministry, and this heightened tensions between the heads and teachers. The majority of heads note that this has created conflict between teachers and themselves as teachers see heads as traitors sabotaging teachers' plans to air their grievances to the Ministry of Education. The situation has not improved; heads point out that the Ministry of Education had not responded positively to teachers' requests with the result that it has affected teachers' morale and commitment to teaching. One head concludes that this had a negative impact on teachers as, *teachers are refusing to participate in extra curricular activities due to their strained relationship with the Ministry of Education* (SSHT 1). Data show that the lack of commitment on the part of teachers has negatively affected students' academic performances in the National examinations with the result that parents are not happy with them and, heads indicate they get the blame. Despite their different levels of experience and training, heads agree with each other - that the Ministry should act in a more consultative way. It is none-the-less an

event that 'tests' their leadership and management skills in ways that matter. The strike shows the limited autonomy that heads have, despite the rhetoric of heads being key decision-makers at the school level. Ministry of Education continues to take major decisions without involving heads.

5.13 Headteachers Relationship with the Community

Headteachers indicate that they are expected to establish a 'good' relationship with the community in two ways. First, the headteachers interviewed say it is their responsibility to engage the community in school activities, such as the Parents and Teachers Association, and in ensuring that parents do attend parents' consultative days. This confirms Tsayang's (1995) findings (reported in chapter 3). However, heads feel that they have been able to persuade some parents to participant in both activities. Second, the headteachers say they are expected to engage the community in participating in school projects through contributions of both ideas and funds.

Heads agree that their skills in dealing with community representatives are inadequate, as dealing with the community differs from dealing with teachers. Even with considerable experience in dealing with the community, heads still find this a challenging task. Two heads explain, *it takes time to explain to the PTA or Board of Governors members the new education policy* (SSHT 7, SSHT 8). Heads acknowledge that the PTA or Board of Governors members are not informed as what to do when they were elected into these positions. Heads acknowledge that these committee members have been made to be heads' responsibility and therefore this has increased their tasks. Overall,

heads acknowledge that members of these two bodies are very helpful in the managing of the school. SSHT 2 comments that the, *Board of Governors have been particularly helpful as they contributed money last year (2002) to establish a school academic quiz. Further than that members of the Board volunteered to be resource persons in training prefects on student's leadership*. However, there is a feeling amongst some heads that some parents are not very helpful and that these are the parents of 'problem children'. Three heads state that parents of these students do not attend consultative meetings or even come to school to discuss problems associated with their children's behaviour.

Most heads were unsure of the future of the PTA or Board of Governors committees. They claim they were informed that both committees were being phased out. Heads indicate that they are uncomfortable with the Ministry of Education taking over the running of the community junior secondary schools in 2004, for until this period these schools had been a joint venture between the Government and the community.

One of the insights to be drawn from the policy changes I have been exploring above is that heads, whether they agree with the change or not, nonetheless need to be able to manage them changes. Managing requires not only understanding the nature of the problem, but the needs of the various actors involved in putting these changes into place.

5.14 Heads' Thoughts on Future Leadership Training

It was found out that the appointment criteria do not relate to the demands of the headship tasks. Heads agree that the criteria used for appointing heads do not reflect the type of tasks that they do, especially as:

> *these days, you do a lot of things that you did not expect to do. Changes that occur need someone to be trained for. There are duties that have been decentralised and delegated to schools, may be someone has not done so before there is need for training before you go in order to avoid making a lot of mistakes (SSHT 2 [has B.A, PGDE, reading for master's degree and has 7 years of school leadership experience).*

Heads also emphasize the need to be trained. As SHHT 3 states:

> *I desperately need training- relevant one is leadership and management. If you are trained you have confidence.*

Data indicate that all headteachers think that it is appropriate to establish a training procedure where all new and serving heads have to be inducted both before and after taking up their role as school leaders. In addition, data indicate that all heads think that their respective Regional Offices should provide them with assistance on how to implement ideas they have acquired from the inductions. Furthermore, they think that observations made by the Regional Officers and heads' personal evaluation could be used as a measure to determine which leadership and management skills each headteacher might need. The underlying understanding is that in order to have effective school leadership, there is a need to establish clear guidelines on training, selection procedures and relevant training programmes. There is also a need to separate training from further education and have different criteria for these two. All 8 heads agree that their school leadership experiences have given them a new understanding of school leadership. At the same time, their experiences are

not sufficient to equip them with the required skills for current leadership and management to participate in a changing educational environment. Interview data from heads indicates that heads need training in the following areas; leadership and management skills, discipline, finance management, motivation, creating teams or team building, creating a positive climate, planning, staff control, supervision, appraisal, communication, maintenance of buildings and physical facilities.

5.15 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the findings from the interviews conducted with heads in 8 secondary schools in Botswana. Interviews with heads highlight their lack of training opportunities and exposing problems of leadership and management, at the same time revealing the type of pressure that heads endure in Botswana secondary schools. Most heads in the study were not inducted immediately after appointment, with the longest period to be inducted being 2 years. A second finding is that the basis of selection for training is poor with several heads having 15 or 20 years experience yet they have not received any training. Furthermore, length of experience does no make up for feelings of competence as a head. The third finding is that there is no leadership training policy for heads and no guidelines as to when a future leadership training plan might be established. Several of the heads feel inadequate and frustrated because they lack a broader view of leadership and management skills to lead and manage school effectively. In conclusion, heads agree that leadership and management skills could be acquired through organised training affirming the view that leaders could be made.

CHAPTER 6

'VIEWS FROM ABOVE' - SECONDARY DEPARTMENT OFFICIALS ON TRAINING

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings from interviews with 2 highly placed Secondary Department officials. Through the interviews I sought to understand how the Ministry itself regarded training and training provision for secondary heads. These officials are important to this study because the Director of Secondary is responsible for policy implementation while the Training officer is responsible for training of heads. At the first meeting of contact, officials were briefly informed about the aims, and purpose of the study and issues to be discussed. In addition, that they should feel free to bring any documentation, which they deemed necessary for the interview or in the event that they have forgotten documentation they could always provide details after the interview.

The data is presented through themes developed from the interview data (see Appendix 2), including; the official's position on training of heads, implementation of recommendations on training of heads from (RNPE, 1994), selection criteria for training and further education, heads' involvement in the implementation of the RNPE (1994), and future leadership training.

6.1. Limitations of the Data from the Secondary Department

While I note the limitations posed by presenting the interview data of 2 officials, it is important to note that I sought interviews with 3 of the 4 possible officials in the area of training because in terms of the organisational structure of the Secondary Department within the Ministry of Education there are 4 levels. The officials are; the Permanent Secretary, Deputy Permanent Secretary, Director, and the Training officer and as I have pointed out in Chapter 4 that I had sought to interview 3 from 4 officials but one declined. The officials who were willing to participate are: the Director of Secondary Department and the Training officer. They are significant for this study because the Director deals with policy implementation and is the direct supervisor of heads. In addition, she/he would know whether there is a leadership training policy and its significance. The Training officer is responsible for training heads and knows procedures that are used. Further, their views would compliment or contradict heads and teachers' views on leadership and management training of heads. In my view, to present no interview data would provide a one-sided view of training. I thus recognise the limitations of generalising this data as the view of the Ministry, at the same time this data provide some insight into the 'top down' perspective.

6.2 Official Position on Training of Heads

Both representatives of the Secondary Department (here referred to as MoET 1 and MoET 2) stated that they were aware that most headteachers did *not have first degrees during the school expansion period, that is, from 1985-1999, so we needed to upgrade them to that level and this took longer than*

planned for (MoET 1). The 2 officials also indicated that immediately after appointment heads are sent for an induction for 3 weeks in management and finance (MoET 1, MoET 2). The officials acknowledged the importance of inducting heads before or immediately after appointment because leadership and management tasks are new to most heads.

Despite this view, data shows that heads' inductions were spread over a period of a month to 24 months after being appointed. The officials could not provide an explanation to such a discrepancy but agree that there are inconsistencies in inducting new heads. This confirms heads' statements outlined in Chapter 5 of this study that the period of induction is not specified. The duration of a week or 3 weeks induction is acknowledged by the Secondary Department officials to be insufficient to equip heads with the kinds of leadership and management skills necessary for school leadership in Botswana secondary schools where policies argue for and emphasise the need for schools to be effective.

6.3 Implementation of Recommendations on Training of Heads from the RNPE (1994)

Earlier I indicated that the RNPE (1994) proposed that "at the school level the specific aims will be to improve management and administration to ensure higher learning" (Botswana Government, 1994:46). In order to interrogate this point, I asked each of the interviewees to expand on the progress made in implementing these recommendations. The response from both MoET 1 and MoET 2 is that they agree that this recommendation is important but it has not been possible to implement because it was omitted from the final

implementation blueprint. The RNPE (1994) further emphasised the need to establish a "national in-service training programme to guide in-service activities, starting from an orientation of a newly appointed teacher at the school level to the training of the newly appointed headteachers" (Botswana Government, 1994:47). The intention of the recommendation was to improve heads' knowledge and skills especially for heads who were new to the profession. This was crucial because the 1996 change emphasises managerialism in heads' tasks. There is also an attempt to establish an organised national in-service training programme that could be used as a framework for training.

To begin, it was found that the officials could not confirm some issues in the interview – largely as there had been a constant transfer of employees within the Secondary Department. It could be argued that, despite willingness, constant movement of officials may well have undermined the development of policy and programmes for training headteachers as well as lack of training of officials on leadership and management. MoET 2 confirmed that "*a structured national in-service training for the orientation of newly appointed heads has not been established yet and I don't why it was omitted from the final implementation blueprint*". Neither had performance management training been established to assist heads in the management and performance appraisal of staff members. Yet on a yearly basis heads are expected to appraise staff members – a practice that ensures accountability to the wider public as well as providing a means for professional development.

Discussions with the 2 officials of the Secondary Department show that there is no face-to-face training for heads. Instead, heads are expected to increase their knowledge of leadership and management through reading materials that are provided. It could be concluded that the Ministry of Education assumes that leadership and management skills can and will be acquired through this kind of experience. This ignores Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the link between organised learning and the acquisition of skills.

6.4 Heads' Selection for Training and Further Education

At my request, the 2 Secondary Department officials explained the processes employed to select headteachers for training and further education. They indicated that heads are annually sent in application forms inviting them to apply for training and further education. Completed forms are then returned to the Training Office. The instructions on the application forms state that the form should be "completed by heads or deputy heads with more than 2 years on the post, confirmation on the post, experience at the present level, value and relevance of the proposed qualification to education service. The same application form is used in considering candidates for short courses" (Ministry of Education, 2003:1). The completed application form is then used as a tool to select heads for training and or further education. According to the officials, the above selection criteria are strictly adhered to. However, most heads as reported in Chapter 5 of this study refutes the officials' view.

The 2 officials were also asked to indicate the number of teachers who were appointed without degrees and how many had been subsequently upgraded. The interviewees were asked this question so that they could provide updated information on their employees' skills and whether they use this information to decide who has to be sent for training or further education, when, and why. However, the officials could not confirm the number of headteachers who had upgraded to degree level, nor the number appointed without a degree. I then requested this information from Teaching Service Management (TSM) which deals with recruitment and promotions. From the document that the TSM provided on the heads' qualifications I found it to be incorrect in that it listed only 120 rather than the total of 231 heads. My follow-up request on this issue resulted in a letter from the *Department of Teaching Service Management* confirming that;

> " were are not able to give you all the information because we do not have it in the Infinium system. You will agree with us that it would not be easy to peruse through 23 000+ files manually in pursuit of this information" (TSM letter, 2004:1).

This response raises an important question as to how, if data is not readily available, do Secondary Department officials know who amongst the heads have been sent or not for training and further education. Further, it also raises questions as to the accuracy of the planning and processes used in training headteachers.

The response from the interviewees on when and how a training needs assessment was carried out is summed up by MoET 1's statement that the; *survey on the training needs of heads has not been done since 1993 as it was done by the Overseas Development Agency.* This response confirms heads'

view; that the Training Office does not understand heads' leadership and management training needs and the Office has not established a procedure that both heads and the Training Officers could find useful.

However, the officials were quick to point out that the Ministry had put into place measures, such as the 'BEAMS' (Botswana Government, 1996) and 'Better Schools' (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1996), to assist heads to read and inform themselves on headship issues. MoET 1 further indicated that copies of these materials are available in all secondary schools and heads are expected to have read them. However, as I have reported in Chapter 5, most heads state that they have not read them.

6.5 Heads Involvement in the Implementation of the RNPE (1994)

The 2 officials indicate that the headteachers were partially involved in the planning of the implementation of the RNPE (1994) through; *heads conferences but I was not here so I am not sure what the conference involved* (MoET 1). The questions that may then be asked are: how many heads attended this conference? How were the rest of the secondary school heads expected to know how they might be involved during the implementation of the RNPE (1994) if they did not attend the conference? Despite the partial involvement of heads, officials state that heads are central to school effectiveness.

The 2 Secondary Department officials indicate that headteachers are central to the delivery of 'quality' education. In addition that heads need both

management and leadership skills because in practice these are complimentary (Bush, 2003). MoET 2 confirms some of the heads' tasks as; to *see to it that procedures as laid down are implemented and to inform their respective teachers on which changes will be implemented at the beginning of the 1996*. MoET 1 agrees that in carrying out these tasks, heads needed, *to be skilled in leadership and management, need to be skilled in the area of human resources and relations, to have an ability to motivate teachers and students*.

However, the officials agree that the implementation of the RNPE (1994) experienced some problems because there was a lack of teaching facilities and qualified teachers for some new subjects during the inception of the implementation period and they think that these may have strained heads' leadership and management skills.

6.6 Future Leadership Training Plans

The 2 Secondary Department officials seemed to believe that despite the inconsistencies in supporting and training heads, that there were no critical leadership and management issues to be addressed. As MoET 1 states; *I think some people are critical of secondary school leadership and management, but I think it is fairly good. We have achieved 50% of transition from junior secondary schools to senior secondary education*. However, the measure of the 50% of students progressing from junior secondary education is not directly related to the quality of school leadership and management. Rather, it relates more to the increase in students' intake in secondary schools due to the availability of senior secondary spaces.

MoET 1 also adds that in order to improve secondary school leadership and management skills in Botswana for the future, the Ministry, *will continue to send heads to attend leadership and management courses and send them for further education on relevant programmes. We will try to ensure that our heads are globally competitive and with their acquired skills will be able to influence the direction of our education.* This is an indication of willingness to train heads on school leadership and management skills. MoET 2 states that there is a desire to do so and refers to the fact that in 2002 a committee drew a plan. However, some of the members of the committee had been transferred with the result that the designing of *the plan has been shelved.*

The lack of a structure to provide a training framework for heads leaves much to chance and creates possibilities for mismanagement and possible malpractice. In order to avoid this in Botswana, it is important that a systematic policy and set of programmes be established which would benefit all headteachers. The outcome from the interview data with the Officials leaves an impression that the Ministry did not link general education policy and planning with the need to develop skilled school heads. However, heads, if they are to develop as confident and competent leaders and managers, need to be provided with opportunities for learning (Buckley and Caple, 1995; Ouston, 1997).

6.7 Conclusion

This chapter reports the findings from interviews with 2 Secondary Department officials who are involved in selecting teachers to headship posts,

and also in organising training. The interview data confirms that teachers are appointed to school leadership positions on the basis of their teaching qualifications and 3 years of deputy headship or senior teacher experience. Officials agree that inductions are inconsistently carried out. Further, there is no database that is kept to ensure who has or has not been inducted or sent for further training. The Secondary Department officials agree that initially most heads experience problems of leadership and management because they are ill equipped for their leadership roles. This confirms the views expressed by heads; that a week's induction is an insufficient method to provide heads with proper basic skills on management and leadership, which in turn affect the provision of quality education. However, the Secondary Department officials agree that there is no training policy and heads are not trained as quickly as is desirable. This requires an organised system that could be used to guide training.

CHAPTER 7

'VIEWS FROM BELOW' – HEADS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

7.0 Introduction

This chapter links together context data with the interview data from headteachers and survey data collected from the teachers in those schools where the heads were posted. Combining the data in this way provides us with a way of understanding school leadership and management in context. I regarded teachers' views on heads leadership and management capacities as important because teachers are the key group that heads have to motivate and influence (Stoll and Mortmore, 1995; Leithwood, 1999). In this chapter, the data are presented as multi-case studies around the following themes:

1. Selection criteria of teachers to school leadership.
2. Headteacher's position in school and tasks.
3. Headteacher's leadership style.
4. Headteacher's access to leadership training and how leadership skills could be improved.

The above categories are important because they address the central question of this study (see Appendix 3); *do heads have the necessary leadership and management skills to implement major policy changes that have taken place in Botswana secondary schools over the past decade.* In order to unravel this question, teachers in each of the schools were asked to (i) express their views

on whether the general selection criteria used to appoint headteachers is adequate; (ii) how they saw the role of the headteacher; (iii) whether this role was a key one within the school; the tasks which their headteacher carried out and which ones their headteacher needed to improve on; (iv) the leadership style of the headteacher, and (v) whether leadership and management training might improve the capability of the head.

7.1.1 Thari Senior Secondary School: Teachers' views on the selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership and management training.

As outlined in Chapter 5, Mr Gilbert (SSHT 1) is the head at Thari Senior Secondary School. We also noted that he had a reasonable level of school leadership experience of a large school and has a Bachelors degree. Mr Gilbert attended a week's induction on school leadership a month after taking up his school leadership position. Mr Gilbert has to manage a large and complex organisation – not only measured in terms of student numbers (1623), but also the number of teachers (94). This would be a challenging job for any person.

The majority of the teachers (7 out of 8) who responded to the teacher survey in this school indicated that teaching qualifications and experience as a deputy headteacher are not sufficient criteria for the post of school leadership. This confirms the view expressed by Mr Gilbert (SSHT 1). However, 1 teacher feels that the criteria are sufficient.

There is a general agreement amongst teachers that the role of their headteacher is central to their school activities. Furthermore, all these teachers feel that their headteachers' tasks have been increased due to the implementation of the RNPE (1994) in 1996. Some of the tasks they cite are; coordinating and running the school, being accountable to the Ministry, teachers and community; manage school funds and lead teachers as well as deal with issues from the community. However, these teachers' state that Mr. Gilbert is not adequately trained in school leadership and management and needs training in communication, interpersonal, motivation, listening skills and financial management. These views concur with the ones raised by Mr Gilbert (SSHT 1) himself. The teachers' views on Mr. Gilbert's leadership style are divided. Some state that his style is transparent while others state it is autocratic. Nonetheless, the majority agree that their head's style is effective.

All of the teachers state that their headteacher does not have access to in-service training programme. They also state that in-service training and further education are necessary to give heads specific and broad knowledge on leadership and management. Mr Gilbert (SSHT 1) too states that he has no access to training and/or further education. Data from half of the teachers surveyed in Thari Senior Secondary School indicate that Mr. Gilbert lacks the skill to motivate and persuade them. Given that Thari is a large school, it is not surprising that there are differences in opinion. However, such a large difference might suggest that he is likely not to be as effective as he might be.

All teachers surveyed at Thari state that formal training could improve their headteacher's leadership and management skills. They also indicate that they are not aware of leadership and management training programme for headteachers in Botswana.

7.1.2 Shima Community Junior Secondary School B: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership and management training

Mr Boitshepo (SSHT 2) is the head at Shima Community Junior Secondary Secondary School. He has a Bachelor's degree and a Post Graduate Diploma in Education and was reading for Master's degree in school management. It could be said that Mr Boitshepo appears to have acquired quite a lot of formal training in the relatively short period (7 years) that he has been in post. Mr Boitshepo was inducted for 3 weeks before taking up the post of school leadership.

Teachers at Shima Community Junior Secondary School state that the criteria used to appoint teachers to the post of school leadership are inadequate. They also state that their headteacher's role is central to their school activities. They further pointed out that the tasks of their headteacher have increased because of the changes, which were introduced by the RNPE (1994). Mr Boitshepo (SSHT 2) states that his tasks have increased and they involve some tasks he did not fully understand.

All of the teachers agree that their headteacher is involved on further education but are not aware of leadership training programmes for headteachers.

Teachers at Shima indicate that some of the activities their headteacher, Mr Boitshepo, undertakes are; being a facilitator, creating a 'good' environment for learning and teaching, overseeing the running of the school, ensuring that staff and students' welfare are given priority and guiding all school members to do all various tasks within the school. The teachers state two aspects which Mr. Boitshepo needs to improve on are; human resource management and budgeting. Mr Boitshepo (SSHT 2) mentioned that he needs training on financial matters, and that it is one area where he depends entirely on the school bursar. Most of the teachers feel that their headteacher's style of leadership is 'good' because he listens and involves both teachers and the community in school activities.

It could be concluded that in this school, Mr Boitshepo (SSHT 2), has been able to motivate and persuade teachers to work towards the achievement of their common goals. Induction before taking up the post and further education may have improved this head's leadership and management skills. However, a small number of teachers state that their headteacher style has not improved even though the headteacher is undertaking further education studies. There is an indication by these teachers that since their headteacher is on further education he does not need training on leadership and management aspects.

7.1.3 Wabobedi Community Junior Secondary Schools: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training

Ms Malebo (SSHT 3) in Wabobedi Community Junior Secondary School has a minimal level of qualifications; the Diploma in Secondary Education. However she has considerable experience - 15 years of school leadership. Ms Malebo was not inducted either before or after taking up her posts.

Data from surveyed teachers in Wabobedi indicate that the criteria used to appoint headteachers are inadequate, as it does not take into account the tasks that headteachers carry out daily. They indicate that at Wabobedi the headteacher Ms Malebo is expected to lead all school members, take charge of all activities, manage school funds, appraise teaching staff, supervise staff, plan and allocate activities, delegate, motivate staff members, deal with the community, develop a vision for the school and build coherent transparent working environment. Teachers state that Ms Malebo does not have all the skills to perform all these tasks; a view confirmed by Ms Malebo.

The majority of teachers at Wabobedi state that their headteacher need training on; communication skills, listening skills, ways of motivating teachers, appraising staff members, managing of funds, motivating teachers, leading by example and upgrading of her academic qualification. The assumption made by these teachers is that academic qualification could improve an individual's personal confidence and general knowledge. Their assumption seems to support Ms Malebo's (SSHT 3) own view of herself; that she lacks confidence because she does not have a bachelor's degree like

most of her teachers. However, it is worth noting that academic qualifications do not provide technical skills but they may well improve ones' self-esteem.

Teachers' are equally divided on Ms Malebo's style of leadership; some say that her leadership style is autocratic while others say the style is a laissez-faire type. The majority, however, say her style of leadership is not effective and she lacks confidence. Ms Malebo (SSHT 3), too, expresses the same view that she lacks interest in her job. She states she enjoys nothing about being a headteacher. The general outcome of teachers' data from Wabobedi indicates that their headteacher is not able to direct, motivate and involve them toward the achievement of some common objectives.

The teachers at Wabobedi state that Ms Malebo does not have access to formally organised leadership and management training programmes. Ms Malebo (SSHT 3) is one of the headteachers who thinks that the selection criteria for training is not fair; she notes that she has been waiting for a long time to be sent for training or further education. Teachers, however, state that their headteacher has attended some workshops run by their Regional office. Clearly this kind of 'one-off' provision is not adequate. Formal leadership training and further education would likely be beneficial to Ms Malebo.

7.1.4 Motlhanka Community Junior Secondary School: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training.

Ms Lesego (SSHT 4) is the head of Motlhanka Community Junior Secondary

School – a mid-sized school which employs 38 teachers. As I noted in

Chapter 5, Ms Lesego has a good portfolio of official qualifications as well as studying for Master's degree in school management at the University of Botswana. She has 6 years of school leadership experience. She was inducted for a week one year after taking up the school leadership position.

As far as teachers in this school are concerned, the criteria for appointing headteachers (prior experience as a deputy) are inadequate. They also all agree that tasks assigned to heads like Ms Lesego by the Ministry of Education are many. They indicate that Ms Lesego tasks include; acting as facilitator in the school, coordinating school activities, motivating staff, creating a 'good' learning and teaching environment, developing vision, developing staff development programmes, leading others by example, being a school manager and providing welfare for both staff and students.

The teachers surveyed at Motlhanka state that Ms Lesego needs training on listening skills, motivating and controlling her emotions. However, Ms Lesego's (SHHT 4) views on her training needs are different as she thinks her needs are on financial matters. However, teachers are divided on Ms Lesego style of leadership; while the majority think it is democratic, a minority states that sometimes it is autocratic. The majority of the teachers however, state that their headteacher's leadership style is effective. Most teachers at Motlhanka state that their headteacher have no access to leadership training, but note her enrolment in further education. In addition, they state that Ms Lesego has attended workshops. Data from teachers in this school indicate that Ms Lesego (SSHT 4) is effective in being able to direct and persuade

them towards the accomplishment of common objectives by a high standard of performance and quality beyond the norm. The school also displays good levels of achievement from students.

7.1.5 Tuelo Community Junior Secondary School: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training.

Ms Tshegofatso (SSHT 5) is the head of Tuelo Community Junior Secondary School; she has a similar profile to Ms Lesego at Motlhanka, though Ms Lesego is enrolled in advanced studies. However this is a much larger community school – and as a result will face considerably more complexities and challenges. Despite this, Ms Tshegofatso was inducted for only one week after being in post of school leadership for 2 years.

Teachers in Tuelo all agree that the criteria used for appointing headteachers to school leadership are inadequate. Teachers also state that Ms Tshegofatso is central to their school activities carrying out the following tasks; guiding teachers and students, counselling both students and staff, leading all by example, supervising teachers, delegating responsibility, implementing policies and having vision for the school. However, teachers state that Ms Tshegofatso needs training on; financial matters, dealing with people, listening skills, communication skills, and mobilising others to share their school vision. Ms Tshegofatso, too, agrees with the views expressed above because she feels that she relies heavily on the school Bursar on financial matters and that she feels uncomfortable with staff appraisal because of limited knowledge and skills.

The teachers' view on Ms Tshegofatso's style of leadership is divided; some state that her style is participative while others state it is autocratic. However, the majority agree that the style is effective. This suggests that Ms Tshegofatso has been able to direct and motivate more teachers toward the accomplishment of common objectives. It is notable that the school has a very high pass rate; it also has a high level of qualified teachers. This may well be that the combination of teacher and leadership competence has an affect on the school outcomes. However, it is difficult to draw such conclusions from this data (for instance, the social class of the students may affect the school in important ways). The important point here is that both the head and teachers in the school feel that training would be beneficial to the performance of the head.

7.1.6 Waboraro Senior Secondary School: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training.

Mr One is the head of Waboraro Senior Secondary School. He has a strong portfolio of qualifications; a Bachelor's degree, a Post Graduate Diploma in Education and a Master's degree in educational management. He has been a head for 6 years. Mr One attended induction on school leadership training for 3 weeks before he took up the post. In addition, he has attended several leadership workshops.

Data from the teachers surveyed at Waboraro indicate that the criteria for appointing heads are not sufficient. They state that Mr. One is central to their school activities and he carries out the following activities; managing,

controlling, coordinating, responsibility for day to day running of the school, ensuring a 'good' working relationship between teachers and students and have a vision for the school.

In addition, teachers point out that Mr. One is confident; a view also held by Mr. One. Mr. One also indicates that this is the result of being trained, and that he has the knowledge and skills to lead and manage. The majority of teachers feel that Mr. One needs no leadership and management training, one of the teachers states that Mr. One needs to improve his motivational skills. The majority of teachers feel that their headteacher's leadership style is both paradoxically democratic and autocratic. They state that the style is sometimes effective because most teachers and students have realised the importance of doing their duties on time and being committed. Mr One pointed out that he uses different styles in different situations. Data from teachers in Waboraro indicate that their headteacher has the skill to direct, motivate and persuade them toward achievement of some common objectives. All the teachers agree that there is no formal leadership training for headteachers. They further indicated that formal leadership training is necessary to improve headteachers' leadership skills.

7.1.7 Mme Community Junior Secondary School: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training.

Mr. Nkutlelang (SSHT 7) is the head of Mme Community Junior Secondary School – a medium sized school with 36 teachers. Mr. Nkutlelang has both qualifications and considerable experience in the job. He was not inducted in

school leadership and management when he took up the post of school head, nor was he inducted after he has taken up the post.

Teachers surveyed in Mme state that the criteria used for appointing headteachers are not adequate. Mr. Nkhutlelang (SSHT 7) agrees with them. They state that their headteacher's role is central to their school; he carries out the following activities at Mme; coordinates school activities, motivates staff, creates a 'good 'environment for teaching and learning, develops a vision for the school, leads by example, develops staff professional development programmes, is a 'good' school manager, provides welfare to both staff and students and engages in community activities. The majority of teachers who were surveyed at Mme state that Mr. Nkhutlelang needs to improve his motivation skills, communication skills, financial management and delegation skills, while three teachers state that their head needs no training.

Data from the teachers in Mme is that their headteacher's leadership style is not effective. This view confirms Mr. Nkhutlelang (SSHT 7)'s view that he feels demoralised. He has been a headteacher for a long time and has not been given opportunities for training or for further education. In combination, these responses suggest that Mr. Nkhutlelang is not an effective leader. Teachers agree that Mr. Nkhutlelang would benefit from formalised leadership training.

7.1.8 Sejang Community Junior Secondary School: Teachers' view on selection criteria, headteacher's position and tasks, leadership style and access to leadership training

Mr. Mokwadi (SHHT 8) is the head of a medium sized school - Sejang Junior Community Secondary School – with a staff of 36 teachers. Mr. Mokwadi (SSHT 8) has a Bachelor's degree and has 11 years of school leadership experience. He was not inducted either before or after taking up the post. However, Mr. Mokwadi has attended 2 workshops on school management and timetabling after being a head.

The majority of teachers surveyed in Sejang agree that the criteria generally used for appointing headteachers to school leadership are inadequate. Mr. Mokwadi (SSHT 8) too agrees that the criteria are inadequate. Data from the teachers at Sejang indicates that their headteacher is central to their school activities and he carries out the following activities; managing school funds, coordinating all activities, supervising and appraising staff, disciplining staff and students, leading staff and students, providing welfare for teachers and students, calling staff meetings, and meetings with parents and teachers. In the view of the teachers, Mr. Mokwadi has too many tasks. Mr. Mokwadi (SSHT 8) agrees with this assessment.

All teachers surveyed stated that Mr. Mokwadi needs training on conducting meetings, inter-personal skills, motivating teachers, giving others chance, human resource needs and accepting criticism. These teachers concur with Mr. Mokwadi's (SSHT 8) own view; that he needs training on communication skills and financial matters. The majority of teachers surveyed at Sejang feel

that their headteacher's style of leadership is autocratic while one teacher says it is 'participative'. The majority also feel this style of leadership is ineffective. However, Mr. Mokwadi's (SSHT 8) view is that school leadership and management are difficult for him, as a result of having no training. However, all of the teachers state that there is no leadership training available to Mr Mokwadi, and that the establishment of a programme would improve his leadership and management skills.

7.2 Overview of Findings from Teachers

Drawing from the teachers' questionnaire data from the multi- case studies of the 8 schools above, the following four major topics are developed to compare views across the 8 schools. These are: (i) selection criteria for appointing headteachers (ii) headteachers' position and tasks, (iii) headteacher's leadership styles and (iv) headteachers' access to leadership training. The summaries of the multi-case studies are discussed below.

7.2.1 General Views on the Selection Criteria

Findings from all the teachers from the 8 multi-case studies schools agree that the criteria used to appoint teachers to the post of school leadership are inadequate, largely as the criteria do not relate to what headteachers are doing. These views support views expressed by all heads in Chapter 5 of this study. The general view is that teaching qualifications do not necessarily develop or improve the school leadership and management skills required by heads. Teachers state that the criteria have resulted in some heads being ill equipped for the job. These views are expressed by headteachers; Mr Gilbert (SSHT 1),

Ms Malebo (SSHT 3), Ms Tshegofatso (SSHT 5), Mr Nkhutlelang (SSHT 7) and Mr Mokwadi (SSHT 8). These teachers and heads' view across the 8 multi-case studies schools confirm Dean's (1993) argument that headteachers need some basic skills in school leadership before they take up the job.

Second, it seems clear that experience at deputy headship level also falls far short of providing the necessary school leadership and management skills required by headteachers. Therefore this experience is a limited one. This confirms the view in the literature; that the leadership and management tasks of a school head are considerably more complex than the role of the deputy. Teachers made these statements because they are convinced that headteachers' tasks have changed since the implementation of the RNPE (1994) and that many heads need some basic skills to carry out tasks effectively.

7.2.2 General Views on Headteacher's Position and tasks.

It is evident from the 8 multi-case studies schools that majority of teachers view the role of their headteacher as central to all school activities (Hoy and Miskel, 1996; Riley and MacBeath, 1998, Coleman, 2003). Teachers indicate that headteachers, as school leaders and managers, are highly regarded. In addition, teachers expect heads to have more knowledge and skills in dealing with school activities. These expectations seem to indicate that the relationship between teachers and their headteachers is a two-way process (Mortimore, 1995). Teachers' views on the activities and tasks carried out by their headteachers varies, however, the majority indicate that the major roles

of their headteachers include: coordinate and supervise all activities that take place within the school; motivate staff, to manage school funds; ensure implementation of the school curriculum; develop vision for the school; lead all school community members; and, uphold government's directives. These headteachers' tasks include both leadership and management tasks. This supports the literature that leadership and management have a symbiotic relationship (Fidler, 1997; Bush, 2003; Mullins, 2005).

It is argued here that leadership includes aspects of management. As Fidler (1997) pointed out, the difference between the two concepts is no longer emphasised because effective school leadership involves a complex intertwining of the two. The headteacher's role goes beyond the individual being able to generate a vision on how the school might operate effectively to include the ability to create an environment that is generative for teachers to be able to teach effectively and for students to be able to learn. Heads also have to ensure schools are effective (Riley and MacBeath, 2003).

It can be concluded that heads are expected to motivate teachers and students to achieve the school aims and objectives, an emphasis based on school effectiveness literature (Riley and MacBeath, 2003). Teachers in this study imply that meeting teachers' needs will result in a more motivated teaching staff who are prepared to meet the demands of teaching.

7.2.3 General Views on Headteachers' Leadership Styles

The questionnaire data from all the teachers in each of the 8 multi-case studies schools indicate that headteachers' styles of leadership are different. For example, Mr. Gilbert's style is described as transparent/autocratic; Mr. Boitshepo's style is participative; Ms Malebo's style is laissez-faire/autocratic; Ms Lesego's style is democratic/autocratic; Ms Tshegofatso's style is participative/autocratic; Mr One's style is democratic/autocratic; Mr. Nkhutlelang's style is autocratic and Mr. Sejang's style is autocratic. Seven of the 8 heads' styles of leadership are partly described as autocratic. This could be explained in relation to the school structure, which continues to be based on a very procedural bureaucratic model, despite a move to managerialism (Bush, 1995; Mullins, 1994). But it is also interesting that most teachers in all the 8 multi-case studies schools agree that 5 (Mr. Gilbert, Mr. Boitshepo, Ms Lesego, Ms Tshegofatso, and M.r One) of the 8 headteachers involve teachers in the decision-making processes in their respective schools. This paradox, of teachers preferring both an autocratic style at the same time as being a democratic leader is interesting. It may well be that such a style is effective for teachers who like to know where they are going and see it is the job of the school to determine this. At the same, they clearly feel they are given some space to make decisions within the school. However, this issue could be researched further in Botswana.

A number of minority teachers in this study state that their headteachers do not involve them (Ms Malebo, Mr Nkhutlelang and Mr Sejang). This group supports the view stated by minority teachers who describe their heads as

dictators who impose their ideas on them and do not want to listen to new ideas. As a result, these teachers state that they mechanically take instructions and some of them have received disciplining letters from their heads. These teachers also state that this type of leadership style has dehumanised them and they do not feel they are part of the school community.

There is an assumption here that headteachers do not carry out the tasks according to the teachers' expectation. Furthermore, teachers imply two things, first that the headteachers are not trained in effective school leadership and management, and consequently they feel inadequate because the changes that have taken place are complex (RNPE, 1994; Everard & Morris, 1996; Busher, 1997). This view confirms those expressed by 7 of the headteachers (see Chapter 5). Second, that headteachers are not trained and therefore may find it hard to develop leadership and management skills through experience. This confirms Everard and Morris's (1996) argument that people do not automatically become leaders once they are appointed to positions of power.

Despite teachers' different views on their headteachers' abilities, skills and styles in performing their roles, teachers' responses to question 7 (see Appendix 3) suggest that most teachers support their headteachers in their respective schools. It is clear from teachers' responses that heads who are supported are those who are knowledgeable and skilful in persuading teachers that they are part of the school's struggles and achievements. A minority of teachers state that they do not support their headteacher, largely as the head does no consult them. They state that some teachers are also angry at the

Ministry of Education for refusing to improve their terms and condition of service. As a result teachers have refused to participate in extra curricular activities. This situation makes leading and managing schools difficult. Heads might find certain kinds of training useful in this regard.

7.2.4 General Views on Headteachers Access to Leadership Training and how it could be Improved

Survey data collected from teachers in this study supports heads' views in Chapter 5 of the same study; that there are no systematic in-service training programmes established for headteachers on school leadership and management. However, some teachers indicate that heads usually attend workshops at Regional offices.

Teachers agree that training is necessary because it would deal with specific skills needed by heads for school leadership and management (Buckley and Caple, 1995). In conclusion, the majority of the teachers from the 8 multi case studies school suggest that leadership and management skills for heads can be improved if induction and training are organised and carried out more systematically. These statements support the view that both a charismatic leader and bureaucratic leader need leadership and management training (Mullins, 1994) in order to develop skills require for a particular context.

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7.3 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed findings from the 8 multi-case studies schools from teachers on the way heads perform their tasks and how they are prepared for school leadership. The data from the teachers' survey is combined with the

views of the headteachers and school profile data. Almost all teachers in Schools (Thari, Shima, Wabobedi, Motlhanka, Tuelo, Waboraro, Mme and Mokwadi) acknowledge that because the role involves too many tasks, heads are experiencing difficulties in coping with these demands and need training on some of the issues such as; financial management, communication skills, counselling and motivational skills.

Heads could be divided into three groups. First, heads with 6 to 7 years of school leadership and management experience (Mr Boitshepo, Ms Lesego, Ms Tshegofatso and Mr One). One of the 3 has a master's degree while 2 are studying for an award of masters. Only Ms Tshegofatso has a Bachelors degree. Nevertheless Ms Tshegofatso's school has the highest pass rate of 75 per cent amongst the 4 schools. As mentioned earlier, her competence and teachers in Tuelo school may have contributed to the 'good' students outcome. Another issue may be that she is still motivated to do her best with the hope of being sent for further training or promotion.

The second group of head are those with experience ranging between 10 and 11 years (Mr. Gilbert and Mr. Sejang). They both have Bachelors degrees and their school pass rates are 75 and 67 per cent respectively. The high pass rate of Mr Gilbert's school (Thari) could be explained by the fact that it is a senior secondary school where students are admitted on the basis of the minimum overall grade B obtained from Junior Certificate examinations. However, admission to community junior secondary schools, like Mokwadi, is based on automatic promotion to secondary education.

The third group of heads are those whose experiences of school leadership and management range between 15 and 20 years. The pass rate for Ms Malebo (Wabobedi) is 59 per cent while the pass rate for Mr Nkhutlelang (Mme) is 61 per cent. These heads schools' pass rates are the lowest, yet these heads have considerable years of experience. However, these heads have reported being frustrated as a result of not having access to those opportunities specifically for learning about leadership and management. Teachers from these schools confirm that if the head was given access to such opportunities they would be more effective in their leadership and management roles.

These cases provide an insight into some of the factors that affect heads' views of their own capacity – particular those factors related to experience and training. A conclusion from this insight is that training might contribute to motivating heads and helps them to develop their leadership and management knowledge and skills.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

The principal aim of this study was to understand the provision of leadership and management training for secondary school headteachers in Botswana and how it could be improved from the perspectives of headteachers, Secondary Department officials and teachers.

In Chapter 1, I outlined a set of personal and professional reasons for undertaking this study. There, I argued that I wanted to conduct a study that would record the views of secondary school heads on their induction into the headship and the nature of school leadership and management that is required for effective school leadership in Botswana. Further, I wanted to come to an informed conclusion on the basis of this research as to how those inductions and skills could, if necessary, be improved. This is based on the idea that a school as an organisation requires effective and confident leaders, and that the best way of achieving this is for heads to be trained in particular aspects of school leadership and management (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993, 1996, Buckley and Caple, 1995, MacBeath, 1998). In the case of Botswana it is noted that 'good' teachers are appointed to the post of school leadership and expected to be 'good' leaders. While it is likely the case that some teachers will make very effective heads within little addition training, this cannot be assumed largely as the jobs themselves are so different. Neither does being a

deputy necessarily prepare them for the position – as often deputies have specific tasks, such as timetabling or discipline. As a result, I argued that 'good' teaching and some administrative experiences are not sufficient criteria for the position (Dean, 1993).

Through an analysis of teachers' survey data from 8 multi-case study schools and interview data from both headteachers and the Secondary Department officials I was able to draw out a set of major findings from majority views. In this chapter I want to now build on various aspects developed in this dissertation; the insights from the literature, a critical reading of the policy, and the major findings from the research to generate a set of broad recommendations as well as possible avenues for future research. Findings therefore are based on the majority views from heads, teachers and the Secondary Department officials. These are captured in the themes below:

1. Inadequacy of selection criteria for school leadership and management position
2. Changes that have occurred in school leadership and management in Botswana secondary schools and new tasks
3. Organised leadership and management training is necessary
4. Leadership training policy for heads in Botswana

acknowledge this argument; they also think that the skills necessary for school heads to do their work have changed and that training is necessary because "leadership and management can be as complex as any other profession like law, vet or a doctor who are trained for 4 to 6 years" (Everard and Morris, 1996: x). As we saw in Chapter 2, there have been significant changes to secondary education in Botswana as a result of policies that have promoted the expansion of numbers of students as well as how schools are organised and managed (that is the introduction of new managerialism).

3. 3 Leadership and New Managerialism

The concept of managerialism became important throughout the 1980s and 1990s to describe changes that were taking place as a result of restructuring of public sectors in both developed and many developing economies (Hood, 1991). These changes had far reaching consequences for the organisation and management of schools. The focus on 'letting the managers manage' and devolving responsibilities that were once located in the centre to the local site, resulted in significant changes for the work of the head. Key aspects of managerialism are; a focus on service delivery, greater efficiency in running the organisation, increased levels of public accountability and a focus on outcomes. Schools were expected to demonstrate these outcomes. Riley and MacBeath (2003:177) observes that managerialism in UK schools emphasised cutting costs and doing more for less as a result of better-quality management (Coleman, 2003). Similar changes also took place in Botswana as a result of the policies of the National Commissions outlined in Chapter 2. In the UK, management and the market became closely intertwined in government

The interview and questionnaire data suggest that participants expect the Secondary Department to change the current criteria and begin the process of induction by providing heads with pre-training (Buckley, 1985; Dean, 1993) to ground them in the job. This is supported by teachers' views in Chapter 5 of this study. The literature regarding training for school leadership and management form a basis for this view. The research findings confirm the findings reported in the wider literature especially by Morrant (1981); that headteachers will feel more able to undertake their tasks if they have a set of basic knowledge and skills on leadership and management before they take up appointment and after (Morrant, 1981; Dean; 1983; Buckley, 1985; Everard and Morris, 1996). This should inform the decisions of the Secondary Department.

Data from heads' interview and teachers' survey responses confirm the view that being a head in a secondary school in Botswana, whatever the size and type of school, is a complex job that involves both leadership and management (Taylor, 2001; Riley and MacBeath, 2003). Leadership appeared to involve having a larger view about the organisation and its goals, and how to motivate those within the organisation as to how best to achieve these goals (Mullins, 2005). Management was a critical dimension of the role (Hood, 1991), however it tended to refer to 'getting things done'. Both of these elements have been tested with the policy changes that have been implemented in Botswana – where heads have had to significantly increase their management tasks as a result of the RNPE policy (1994). For many of

the heads in this study, being a confident, competent and effective leader and manger was the result of a process of learning – both on the job and formally.

8.2 Changes that Have Occurred in School Leadership and Management in Botswana Secondary Schools

The study has indicated the significant challenges and changes in school leadership and management practices since 1885 to the 1990's in Botswana's educational system. The first change took place when the Missionaries introduced the modern western school (Parsons, 1983). In this pre-colonial education setting, the running of the school was done in a participative and inclusive manner. Later, schools were formalised and bureaucratised with the result that responsibility was centralised in the centre and in the headteacher as the representative of the centre (Parsons, 1983; Tlhobogang, 2002).

Background literature indicates that in the 1980s heads operated in schools as bureaucratic leaders and they were placed at the apex of school structures and had power and authority (Bush, 1995). However, the 1990s brought major policy changes that shifted the balance and focus of heads' tasks (Chapters, 5, 6 and 7, of this study). This shift resulted in new demands, such as; skills of service delivery, being more accountable to communities and ministries, having the ability to ensure coordination of a range of tasks (Riley and MacBeath, 1998), and more of an emphasis on individual student's outcomes. This has tipped the balance between leadership and management, placing more emphasis on managerial activities. This is consistent with Mortimore' (1991, 1995) and Reynolds' (1997) views, that effective schools are associated with effective headteachers. However, Riley and MacBeath (1998)

point out that while school effectiveness might differ from one country to another, what does not vary is the ability of the head to sustain relationships in the school.

An important issue at this point of the study is what values and approach to systematic learning might underpin the training of heads. One model that has been preferred by the Ministry and promoted by the international agencies has been a school effectiveness model (Thrupp, 1999). However, it is useful and potentially instructive to reflect on whether a model of leadership might draw on the earlier tribal approach. This might resonate better with the community. It would also, potentially distribute leadership and management tasks amongst the school community. As my research has shown, the policy changes over the past decade have resulted in a significant escalation in the work of heads.

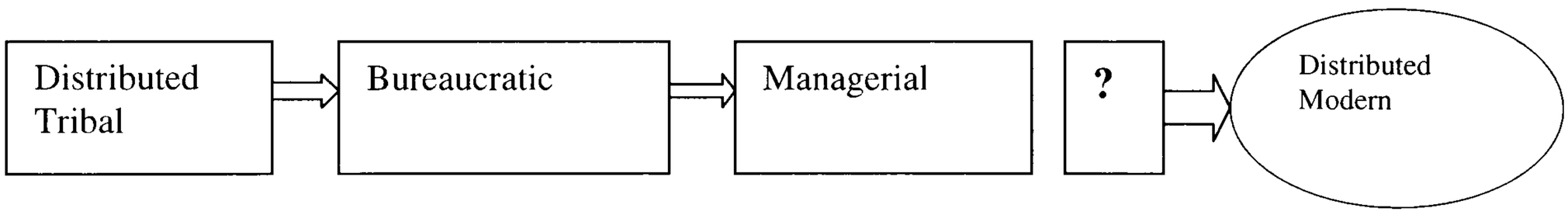

Figure 8.1: Changes and different models of Leadership in Botswana.

Distributed tribal approach is also similar to what the current leadership writers and researchers call distributed leadership. However, the distributed modern approach argues for 'de-centring' the role of the head and recognising that all members of the school community have a part to play (Gron, 2000; Goleman, 2002). A distributed modern or distributed indigenous model might

then inform not only the approach and content of heads' training programmes but of programmes aimed at teachers. More clearly needs to be done on this.

8.2.1 New Tasks

The research suggests that currently heads are viewed as central to school activities in secondary schools in Botswana. This was the consequence of the RNPE (1994), which in turn introduced 10-years of basic education and 2-years of senior secondary education (RNPE, 1994). Heads are expected to 'create a good environment for learning and teaching, ensuring that staff and students' welfare are given priority, budgeting, coordinating, manage school funds, supervise, plan, appraise staff, delegate some responsibilities, motivating teachers, implementing policies, supervision of building projects, deal with the community and develop a vision for the school. These tasks confirm what was reported in the literature; there are new demands on headteachers (Buckley and Caple, 1995; Busher, 1997) that require new skills (Coleman, 2003).

8.3 Organised Leadership and Management Training is Necessary

The interview and survey data reveal that there is limited access for leadership and management training for heads and that there is a need for systematic and organised training developed and administered by the Secondary Department in consultation with heads. This would include consultation about the content.

The first formal step would be to carry out a training assessment (MacMahon and Bolam, 1990; Oldroyd and Hall, 1997). Currently this is not done. It is

argued here that training assessment should take into account heads different views, experiences, levels of training, and future goals.

There is a general agreement amongst participants especially heads, Secondary Department officials and teachers (Chapters 5, 6 and 7 respectively) that pre-induction (Dean, 1993) is necessary to better ground heads in their tasks. Literature also emphasises a relationship between a jobholder, the job and the skills (Ouston, 1997) required for the job. This is a particular kind of learning space that recognises the insights of Bandura (1986); a space where anxieties about the job and the anticipated challenges might be addressed, reflected upon and strategies for learning developed.

8.4 Leadership Training Policy for Heads in Botswana

Data revealed that there is no established leadership training policy that could guide training in Botswana. Consequently, there is lack of procedure which could guide training of heads and as a result training is disorganised and uncoordinated. Both the interview and the survey data show that this is a result of omitting the recommendations on the establishment of a national in-service programme from the final blueprint by the Ministry of Education (MoET 1 and MoET 2). The non-existence of a policy (van Rooyen, 2005) has an impact on whether a training institution and its programmes is designed and implemented.

The situation in Botswana can be contrasted to that in the UK, where there is a clear process in place. Literature shows that the establishment of the

national training policy in the UK was essential to ensure that there is a national framework that guides training institutions on what is expected from training (Bush, 2003; Caldwell et al, 2003).

8.5 Recommendations

From the heads, teachers and the Ministry of Education officials' data (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) I have drawn some recommendations. Looking at the financial scope and the processes that would be taken to establish a leadership training policy, I have divided my recommendations into two types; the future and short-term strategies. According to literature (Bush and Jackson, 2002; Bush, 2003) establishment of a training policy is necessary to guide to improve effective training of secondary school heads in Botswana. This is the future strategy. The policy would provide guidelines on whether to build a leadership training institution and where and how funds would be made available. It is anticipated that once the institution has been built, then it would be possible to develop leadership and training programmes.

First, the Ministry of Education should establish a leadership training policy for secondary school headteachers. This policy might be built upon and reflect an indigenous distributed leadership approach. It should also be developed through consultation not only with heads but with teachers and the community.

In addition, the Ministry of Education may have to consider that once the policy is in place it would be necessary to establish is structural link to the

Ministry and how it would be managed. There would be a need to publicize it and make it easily accessible to ensure easy access of heads. Another aspect drawn from the data (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) that needs consideration is that the training institution should develop relevant programmes for different levels of school leadership (Bush, 2003). Training programmes could address the needs of heads and teachers. It might also be differentiated to cater for different groups of heads with different needs at different times (www.ncsl.org.uk). Further, it is necessary for the Ministry to carry out a feasibility study on how much funds would be needed to establish a full fledged training institution. The availability of funds could ensure that the process and structure for leadership and management training can be implemented. Funds should come from the state, as well as other interested organisations.

Data and literature have shown that leadership and management skills are crucial in making schools effective. Therefore, training programmes should be designed in such a way that they take cognisant of the fact that both leadership and management are necessary for school heads. Literature indicates that leadership and management are intertwined (Mullins, 1994; Fiddler, 1997; Bush, 2003). However the programme must draw on the underpinned values and approach to leadership – for instance, an indigenous distributed model.

In order to contextualise the training programmes to Botswana's leadership and management skills' needs, the Botswana Teachers Union which represents all primary school teachers, the Botswana Federation of Secondary

School Teachers, and lecturers unions both at Colleges and University who are potential sources of information need to be consulted on aspects of leadership and management and could also be effectively drawn into various parts of the process, such as planning, induction, delivery, evaluation. In addition, the nation (Batswana) could be usefully engaged through the normal process of consultation (kgotla system).

It is acknowledged that the process of establishing a formal policy, process and programme of leadership and management training will be costly. It will also take some time to establish. But these recommendations are affordable because currently Botswana has the financial capability to establish a training policy because the current financial budget shows that the country could afford it. However, I acknowledge that, this could not be done immediately and therefore there is need for a short-term strategy.

Though I have divided my recommendations into the future and short-term strategy, it must be noted that I do not want to be prescriptive but rather I wanted to focus on processes that involve different stakeholders (heads, teachers and Secondary Department officials) and might contribute to a different way of thinking about developing leadership and management skills of heads in Botswana, and one that is more attuned to indigenous knowledge and practices. But in order to avoid delays in improving heads' leadership and management skills, the Secondary Department may consider the short -term strategy below.

8.5.1 Short Term Strategies for Improving Heads' Leadership and Management Skills

Drawing from data in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 it is clear that heads, teachers and Secondary Department officials think that leadership and management skills are crucial in ensuring that school are effective. In recognition of this and the serious economic implications, I think a short-term strategy is necessary. There will be financial and logistical problems in establishing a leadership training policy and it may be necessary to consider the following alternatives. The first alternative could be for the Secondary Department to identify people with relevant qualifications and train them to be trainers. Once, these trainers are skilled to train heads then they could develop training programmes based on the results of heads' training needs assessment of both serving and new heads. It would be necessary to develop criteria of selecting heads.

It would be important to induct all heads. There should be different programmes designed for serving and new heads, and this could be differentiated through age, experiences, backgrounds, aptitudes and gender (MacMahon and Bolam, 1990). The data (Chapters 5, 6 and 7) too indicate that heads of different ages and experiences have not been inducted. Induction for new heads should be carried out before heads take up the school leadership post. It is logical that once heads have been inducted it would be beneficial if heads are visited by Education Officers and/or trainers soon so that they could be assisted on how to use the new acquired knowledge in the school environment.

Cognisance is taken that funds would not be available immediately and therefore, the Ministry of Education may utilise the existing infrastructure such as Colleges of Education buildings during their yearly academic breaks as temporary leadership training centres for school heads and therefore the above strategies could be implemented. Finally, for initial capacity building of leadership trainers, it is possible that the Ministry of Education could deploy expertise from within the University of Botswana. Since this would be on part-time basis it would not be as costly as it would be if it were to be full time. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education might consider engaging other local and foreign experts on school leadership if the need arises. Once, the Leadership Training institution has been built and trainers have been trained the temporary measures should cease.

8.6 Implications for Future Research

This study has exposed the lack of adequate preparation for secondary school headteachers for school leadership and management in Botswana secondary schools and raised questions on the provision of quality education and personal ability to lead and manage. However, there is need to carry out a research on whether and how an indigenous distributed model might underpin future leadership and management developments. This will be a challenging and potentially valuable task. Further, the impact of headteachers' relationship with the Ministry of Education has not been considered seriously, and many questions arise as to whether heads with leadership and management skills would be able to make decisions without relying heavily on the Ministry of Education and what type of leadership and management

training might be necessary for secondary schools heads in Botswana amidst students' indiscipline and teachers' low morale. For the future development of training educational leaders critical reflection should be taken by writers and researchers in this field to bring together the theories of leadership and management to training.

8.7 Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations to this study, which need to be taken into account. First, the schools in this study represent one secondary school per district. The experiences of both head and teachers per school may be different from the others in the same district or other districts. One way of overcoming this would be to undertake a study of all schools in the same district. Another limitation is that the number of the sample is small because it comprises of 8 from 231 heads, and 50 teachers from the total of 3, 707 teachers (Education Statistics Report, 1997) nation-wide. Due to the limited number of participants, this study cannot be taken as a representative of the group of secondary school heads and teachers in the country as there are obvious contextual and geographical differences between districts, and individual heads as well as individual teachers. In such a case a question of biasness may arise. However, that was addressed by using three methods of; interviewing, survey questionnaire and document analysis (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Cohen et al, 2003). These method provided triangulation therefore reducing biasness and ensuring validity and reliability.

8.8 Conclusion

This study brings into focus the importance of heads feeling that they need the confidence and competence to lead and manage complex organisations. In this study, it was evident that this was not always the case, and that heads felt that training would help. Heads need a considerable amount of knowledge, skills and attributes if they are to perform well. It is hoped that this study is able to reveal the importance of well thought out and well timed opportunities for learning for heads, both prior to and following taking up their posts. These kinds of developments, it is argued, will contribute to improving the quality of education in Botswana.

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Appendix 1

THE SEMI- STRUCTURED IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS

Introduction

- ❖ The headteachers were thank for giving up her/his valuable time for the interview
- ❖ I explained the aim of the research and the purpose of the interview
- ❖ I indicated to all heads that their views and perceptions are valuable
- ❖ I explained anonymity and that our conversations were strictly confidential and therefore they have nothing to fear in expressing their views

Areas that were covered in the interview are:

A. Appointment Criteria and the Job

1. Do you think that the criteria for appointment for the post of headteacher reflect the nature of the job you are doing? If so, tell me why?
2. Are there any requirements necessary for one to qualify for the post of headship?
3. Do you think there is need to change any and if so why?
4. What in your view is leadership? Can you describe it from the following:

4 (a) before you became a headteacher?
4 (b) after you have been a headteacher?
4 (c) after your headship experience and after training on leadership?

5. From your headship experience what do you think are necessary leadership skills to make school effective?

B. RNPE (1994) Policy Implementation)

1. What is your relationship with the Education? (1994)?
2. Were you involved in the design and implementation of RNPE (1994)? If you were, how?
3. Were you prepared for its implementation and what were your experiences? If yes, please elaborate.
4. What role did teachers play in its implementation?
5. What were the teachers' views with regard to its implementation? Can you recall any?
6. Were there any major issues in the policy, which were easy/ difficult to complete? Can you give an example of those issues and how were they resolved?

C. Personal Evaluation and Training Practices

1. Do you feel you had the necessary skills to take up the job? Please explain further.
2. After appointment who helped you most in coming to terms with headship tasks? And why did you need help?
3. Did you have an induction before you assume duty? If so, how long was it and what did it involve? If, not, what is the procedure of the Secondary Department regarding induction?
4. Can you recall when the induction was carried out?
5. Are headteachers offered any leadership training opportunities after ppointment?
6. How is selection for further training carried out?
7. Does the Training office carry out any training need assessment?
8. Do you think that the procedure for selecting heads for further training is adhered to? If not please elaborate?
9. Is there a leadership training policy for heads?

D. Role of the Headteacher and Support

1. Could you mention all your tasks and indicate those that are easy and difficult to perform and why?
2. Have you read 'BEAMS' and 'Better Schools'? If not why?
3. What kind of support do you get from your Regional Office?
4. What do you enjoy most about being a headteacher?
5. What stresses you most as the headteacher?
5. What kind of support do you get from your deputy head and senior teachers (senior management team)?
6. What kind of relationship do you have with teachers? Please elaborate.
7. What kind of relationship do you have with students? Please elaborate.
8. Do you think quality education is provided in secondary schools?

E. Establishing yourself in the Community

1. In what way do you relate to the parents? Can you describe the relationship?
2. Which headship tasks do you need training on?
3. How does the community participate in school decision-making processes?
4. In what way do you relate to members of the Board of governors and how does this committee assist the school?
5. How do you view this relationship with regard to your tasks? Please elaborate.

F. Future Leadership Training

1. What do you think need to be done in order to improve headteachers' leadership training?
2. How can heads' training needs be carried out?

3. How could Leadership training programmes be made to be relevant to heads' needs?

G. Personal and Background Information

1. Please state your gender.
2. Which district is this?
3. What is your highest academic qualification?
4. Where did you train to become a teacher?
5. How long did you teach before you were appointed to be a headteacher?
6. How many years have you been a headteacher at this school?
7. What is your current student enrolment?
8. How man qualified and unqualified teachers are there in this school?
9. What is your school national pass rate percentage for the last year?
10. For how many years in total have you been a headteacher?
11. What encouraged you to become a headteacher?

Appendix 2

SEMI- STRUCTURED IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE OFFICIALS OF THE SECONDARY DEPARTMENT

.

Introduction

- ❖ The Secondary Department officials were thanked for giving up their valuable time for the interview.
- ❖ The aim of the research and the purpose of the interview were explained to the interviewees.
- ❖ I highlighted the importance and value of their perceptions and views.
- ❖ I explained anonymity and confidentiality and assured them that their views are only be known by me and therefore should feel free to express their views.

Questions

1. From your experience what have been the central recommendations from the RNPE (1994)?
2. How was the implementation of the 10- years of basic education policy initially carried out in secondary schools?
3. Were headteachers prepared for the implementation of the RNPE (1994) at their various schools? If so, how and could you please give examples?
4. What were the successes of the initial implementation/
5. What were the failures of the initial implementation?
6. Who were the main implementers at the secondary school level and why?
7. How were headteachers assisted?
8. What will you say is leadership? Please give your own description?
8. How and when are new secondary school headteachers inducted for their new roles?
9. What does induction involve?
10. RNPE (1994) emphasises training of school leaders on leadership and management, has such training taken place? If not and why?
11. In relation to the new changes in the role of secondary school headtechers what is their current training needs? How is their training needs assessed?
12. Would you say both pre- service and in-service leadership training for secondary school headteachers are necessary?
13. What procedures are used to select heads for leadership training and qualification upgrading?
14. Is there a training policy?
15. What can be done in future to improve acquisition of leadership skills by heads?

Appendix 3

University of Botswana
Private Bag 0022
Gaborone
Work Tel: 355248

Home Tel: 3959513

28th July 2003

Dear Teacher

RE: COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research. The aim of this research is to find out the nature of leadership training provided for headteachers. Will you complete the questionnaire attached to this letter, as the information from it will comprise part of the data to be used for my dissertation leading to a Doctor of Education from the University of Bristol. I am hoping that not only will I be able to provide an insight into the activities and training needs associated with leadership in secondary schools in Botswana but that my research will provide valuable input to efforts to prepare headteachers to become skilled professional leaders and effective managers.

Please feel free to make whatever comments you feel will help me to understand the complex and changing role of headteachers as your views will remain confidential. Please do not write your name on the questionnaire to preserve anonymity. Please complete the consent form attached to indicate your willingness to participate.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely

B. C. Pheko

CONSENT FORM

Please delete what is not appropriate.

I---------- would like/would not like to participate in the afore-mentioned research.

Thank you.

My address is

Please reply to the address indicated in the letter.

SELF ADMINISTERED SEMI-OPEN –ENDED QUESTIONS FOR SELECTED FOR SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Instructions

Please complete the questions below on the space provided. In answering the questions below, please respond in relation to **YOUR CURRENT SCHOOL**, even if you have only been there a short time unless otherwise specified.

Section A

Personal Information

1. Gender (please circle one) female Male
2. District_____
3. How long have you been at this school?_____ (year/ s)
4. What is your academic qualification? (eg, DSE, BA etc) _____
5. Do you have a teaching qualification? (Please circle one? Yes No

Section B

Teaching Experience and Evaluation of Leadership skills

(For questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 12, 13, 14 & 15 you should draw on your overall teaching experience even from other schools).

1. List three ways in which the RNPE (1994) implementation affected your role.
   a) _____
   b) _____
   c) _____
2. Were you prepared for the implementation of the current Form 3 or 5? If so, how?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
3. Is the role of the headteacher central to school activities? What tasks do heateachers do?

   _____
   _____
   _____
4. Has the role of the headteacher changed since 1996?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

5. What type of leadership style does your current headteacher?

_____

_____

6. Is the leadership approach used by your head effective or not? Give three reasons for your choice.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. Do your colleagues support the headteacher? Give two examples.

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. Is your headteacher trained in school leadership? Please explain your answer.

_____

_____

_____

9. Is there a need to improve your head's leadership skills? If so, which ones?

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. Are there in-service leadership training opportunities for your head? If so, specify?

_____

_____

_____

11. Is it possible for a well-designed relevant training programme possible to improve leadership skills? If yes, how?

_____

_____

_____

12. Does your head have a 'good' working relationship with staff, if not how can it be improved?

_____

_____

_____

13. Does your head have a 'good relationship with students? Please describe this relationship.

_____

_____

_____

_____

14. Does your head have a 'good' professional relationship with the community? Please describe it.

_____

_____

_____

_____

15. Are subject qualifications and experience on administration sufficient to equip heads with leadership skills? If not what can be done to improve acquisition of skills?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix 5

Graduate school of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkeley Square
BS8 1HH
United Kingdom
00 44- 117-9287175
E-mail b.cpheko@bristol.ac.uk

29 April 2003

The Headteacher

_____

_____

_____

Dear Madam / Sir

RE: REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEACH

I will be coming to Botswana to collect information from some of the secondary school headteachers on their views regarding training provision for leadership and management. The data collected will comprise part of the data to be used for my dissertation leading to a degree of Doctor of Education from the University of Bristol.

The objective is to be able to provide an insight into the activities and training needs associated with leadership and management in secondary schools in Botswana but also that my research findings will provide valuable input to efforts to prepare headteachers to become skilled professional leaders. Issues to be discussed and how information will be collected and kept confidential will be communicated to you once you have agreed to participate.

May I request you to complete the consent form attached to this letter indicating your willingness or unwillingness to participate in this research.

Please reply to the address below:
Bolelang. C. Pheko
P. O. Box 402874
Gaborone

Your assistance is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

B. C. Pheko

CONSENT FORM

Please delete what is not appropriate.

I _____ would like/would not like to participate in the afore-mentioned research.

Thank you.

My address is;

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please reply to the address indicated in the letter.

Appendix 6

Graduate School of Education
University of Bristol
8-10 Berkeley Square
Bristol
BS8 IHH
United Kingdom
00- 44- 117-9287175
E-mail b.c.Pheko@bristol.ac.uk

29 April 2003

Ministry of Education
P/ Bag 005
Gaborone
Botswana

Dear Sir / Madam

RE: REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH

I will be coming to Botswana to collect information on the provision of leadership and management training for secondary school headteachers. I would appreciate if you could agree to be interviewed on what type of training is provide and what are the future plans to improve it. The information collected will comprise part of the data to be used for my dissertation leading to a degree of Doctor of Education from the University of Bristol.

The objective is to be able to provide an insight into activities and training needs associated with leadership and management in secondary schools in Botswana but also that my research findings will provide valuable input to efforts to prepare headteachers to become skilled professional leaders. More issues regarding confidentiality of the data collected will be communicated to you in due course after you have agreed to participate.

May I request you to reply to the address below:
Bolelang. C. Pheko
P. O. Box 402874
Gaborone.

Your assistance is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

B. C. Pheko

TELEPHONE: 3655400
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 351624/3655458
REFERENCE: E 11/17 XXXIV

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE
BOTSWANA

21 April 2004

Dear **Bolelang C Pheko**

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

We acknowledge receipt of your research proposal. You have been granted permission to conduct your research entitled:

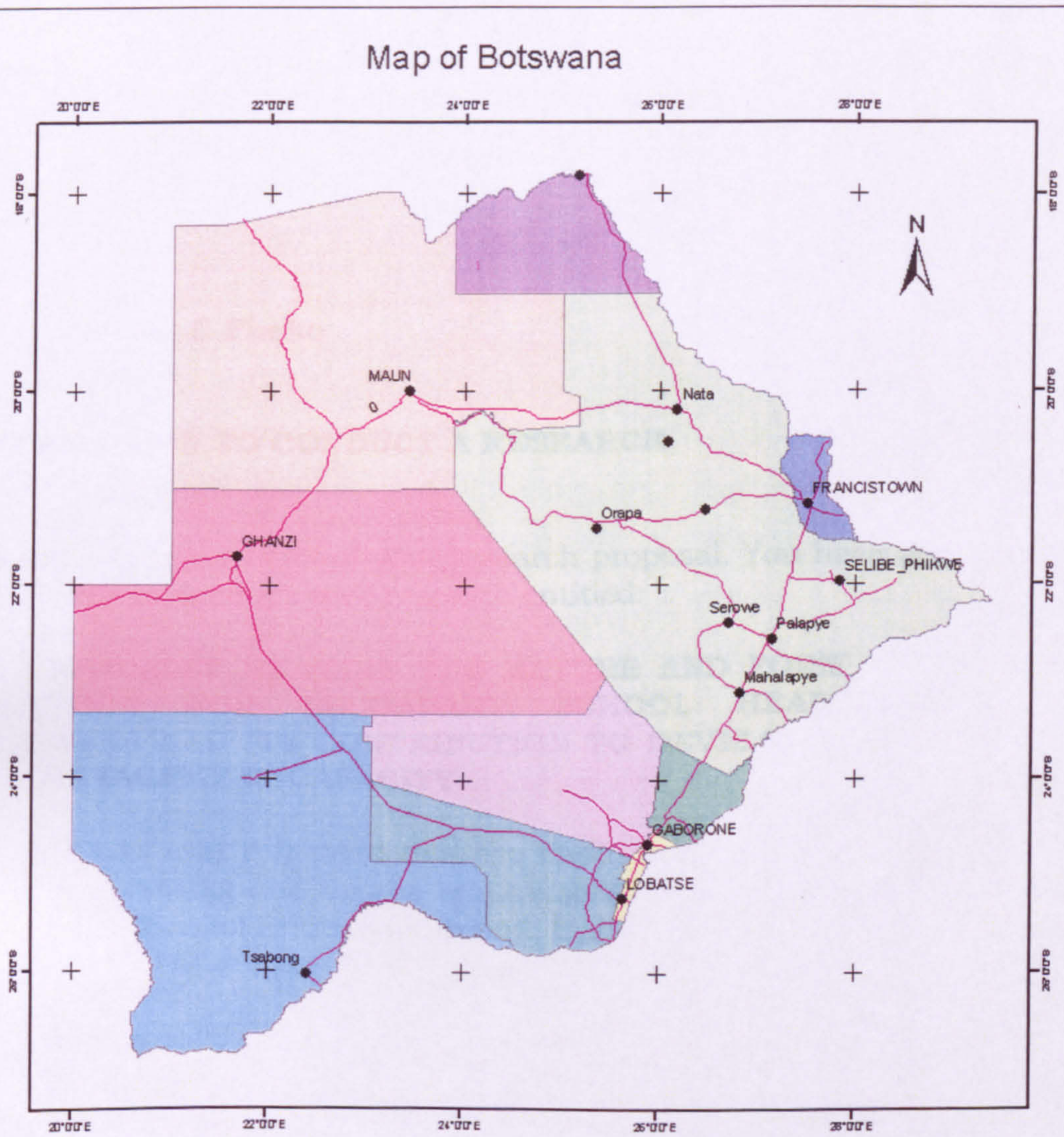
TO CRITICALLY EXAMINE THE NATURE AND FORM OF TRAINING PROVISION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADTEACHERS IN BOTSWANA AND ITS CONTRIBUTION TO DEVELOPING LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT CAPACITY

You are how ever reminded that the findings of your research should be used in Botswana and for the requirements to fulfil the award of PhD at Graduate School of Education, Bristol, United Kingdom.

Thank you

M I Mokubung
For / Permanent Secretary

Map of Botswana



0 37.5 75 150 225 300

Kilometers

1:6,000,000

Legend

- Major settlements
- Mainroads

DISTRICT

- CENTRAL
- CHOBE
- GHANZI
- KGALAGADI
- KGATLENG
- KWENENG
- NGAMILAND
- NORTH-EAST
- SOUTH-EAST
- SOUTHERN